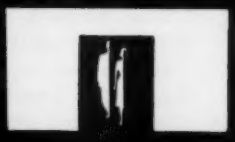
MAY 1964

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW



In this issue

Training Disadvantaged Youth · Rural Youth · Summer Jobs · Youth Training Center · Youth and Technology Changes · Job Clinics · Youth With a Record

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contents

articles

YOUTH—A NEW EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FOCUS, Louis Levine 1
MIAMI'S APPROACH TO YOUTH TRAINING, Michael H. Houchard, Florida 6
BRINGING SERVICE TO RURAL YOUTH, Ethel Fryer, West Virginia 8
"PUT YOUR BEST FOOT FORWARD," Joseph P. Dyer, Connecticut 10
TRAINING DISADVANTAGED YOUTH IN CHATTANOOGA, Glenn Ervin, Tennessee 13
CAREER DAY IN THE INSTITUTION, Mildred Horne 15
ARKANSAS SERVES RURAL YOUTH, James Sellers, Arkansas 17
HELPING THE TROUBLED YOUNG JOBSEEKER, Carolyn P. Green, New York 19
SAN FRANCISCO EXPERIMENT IN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY PREVENTION, Anne Valdez, California 21
SUMMER JOBS FOR JOHNNY AND JANE, John D. McCormick and J. Arthur Bianchi, Kansas 23
THE MATURE DROPOUT'S VIEW OF FUTURE SCHOOLING, Dorothy Newton, Missouri 25
SKILL SURVEY POINTS TRAINING DIRECTIONS, Maria Mallet, Georgia 28
PITTSBURGH YOUTH TRAINING PROGRAM, Claire M. Hagmaier and Louis A. Valicenti, Pennsylvania 30
REGIONAL TRAINING CENTER FOR SOUTHERN OHIOANS, Robert E. Chapman and Donald L. Robertson, Ohio 32

departments

MANPOWER TRENDS 11
AUTOMATION 26
Youth Employment and Technological Change
TRAINING ACTIVITIES 34
Youthful MDTA Graduates Find Jobs
CHANGING COMMUNITIES 37
Duluth–Superior—a Redevelopment Area
INDUSTRY 39
Department Stores Provide a Million Jobs
LOCAL OFFICE ACTIVITIES 42
USES MAILBAG 44
ES NEWSLETTER 45
FARM LABOR MARKET 47
OCCUPATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS 49
Fewer Hard-to-Fill Jobs
STATISTICS 52

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

MAY 1964
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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. Willard Wirtz, Secretary
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY – U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE REVIEW

ELSIE S. DORMAN, *Editor*

A MONTHLY JOURNAL OF
FEDERAL-STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
PROGRAMS AND OPERATIONS

BUREAU OF EMPLOYMENT SECURITY
Robert C. Goodwin, Administrator
U.S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
LOUIS LEVINE, DIRECTOR

YOUTH—A New Employment Service Focus

LOUIS LEVINE, Director, U.S. Employment Service

The job market problems of youth that are giving rise to so much concern today are relatively now to this Nation. They reflect a number of economic and social trends which are not new but have been greatly accelerated in recent years. High and increasing unemployment among young people may well be our most formidable manpower problem in this decade. The unemployment rate for youth between the ages of 16 and 21 was about 15 percent in 1963, almost three times the national average of 5.7 percent.

High unemployment rates among young workers have existed for many years. It was generally assumed that these presented no special problem, as they reflected largely the process by which young workers acquired labor market experience, tried out various types of jobs, developed job skills, and in due course determined on the occupational niche that would serve them for the bulk of their years in the work force. It was reasonable to expect that the passage of time and the availability of jobs would be adequate to solve the unemployment problems of youth.

Only very recently have we come to recognize that the problem of unemployment falls with disproportionate weight on certain sectors of the youthful population, as it does for the total labor force—those most severely disadvantaged by reason of lack of education and skill, cultural deprivation, and discrimination. The problem of youth unemployment is now seen in the broader context of the problem of poverty and disadvantage which afflicts a large segment of the Nation, and which has taken on some of the characteristics of an "inherited" trait for many millions of Americans. It has also become obvious that the existing social, educational, and economic institutions do not in fact provide equal opportunity for whole groups of young people to find a productive place in even a vigorous and rapidly expanding economy.

Although total employment and national output rose to record-breaking heights in 1963, the new jobs generated by our expanding economy were generally filled by adult workers, while the number of unemployed youth actually increased. Joblessness among the 16 to 21 year olds in the labor force rose to 14.7 percent in 1963 from a rate of 13.1 percent the year before. The problems are serious and can be expected to become even more so, for growing numbers of untrained and inexperienced youth will be competing for jobs in the face of a steadily shrinking demand for unskilled workers both in industry and on the farm.

Overall averages of unemployment tend to conceal a multitude of problems. The average of 1.2 million jobless youth (16–21) in 1963 was made up of individuals who need help of many kinds. In addition, during the nonsummer months of 1963, there were about 265,000 young men between the ages of 16 and 21 who were not in school, not at work, nor even looking for work. We have come to recognize that the concentration of out-of-school and out-of-work youth in the slum areas of our large urban centers has many social as well as economic implications.

Despite the many obvious advantages of urban living, for some people urbanization brings with it a host of problems. They are compelled by poverty and discrimination to live in slum areas. Many youngsters drop out of school because of economic necessity or because their environment of poverty and frustration deprives them of motivation, interest, or expectation of success. Further, since slum areas frequently have the least adequate educational facilities and curricula poorly adapted to the

youngsters' interests, needs, or capabilities, even those who do finish school are often unprepared to compete in the labor market.

It is among the young members of disadvantaged minority groups that some of our most serious problems of chronic unemployment are to be found. In 1962, for example, about one out of every four nonwhite youth 16–21 in the labor force was unemployed, compared with about one out of every eight white youths. Moreover, since 1955 the jobless rate of nonwhite teenagers has been rising twice as fast as among white youngsters. Even when nonwhite youths have high school diplomas, their unemployment rate is double that of their white counterparts. Seeing little to inspire hope and ambition, some children of the slums may turn to unlawful acts. Delinquency rates are about three times higher in urban than in rural areas, and within the cities, delinquency tends to be concentrated in slum sections.

In large part, the unemployment problems of youth can be traced to the matter of sheer numbers—the rapidly growing number of young people who are reaching working age and will be entering the labor market in the years just ahead. Between 1964 and the end of the current decade, about 17 million new young workers—an unprecedented number—will begin their labor market experience. The problems of about a third of these young people will be greatly complicated by the fact that they dropped out of school before completing the 12th grade. Approximately a third of the dropouts will not have finished even their elementary school education.

Many of these young people are the product of poverty—urban and rural, white and nonwhite. The 35 million poor of this Nation include over 11 million children under 18 years of age. All of these are being raised in families that have less than $3,000 annual income. At least 3.5 million are growing up in families with five or more young children to support out of totally inadequate income. Many of these children of poverty drop out of school by the time they are 16 and begin a life-long drift through a series of low-skill jobs, plentifully interspersed with periods of joblessness. Others may have the ability and the ambition to continue their schooling, but cannot find the part-time jobs that would help meet school and family expenses.

While the numbers of new labor force entrants continue to grow, the net effect of rapidly paced shifts in industry and the impact of automation and other technological developments are resulting in a continuing loss of unskilled and entry jobs for youth. Although mechanization and automation are popularly associated with nonfarm industry, in recent years the rate of technological change in agriculture has far exceeded that in urban industries. This is reflected in a stepped-up exodus of farm youth who seek jobs in urban centers. These young people are likely to be quite unprepared, however, by either training or experience for the highly competitive urban labor market.

Rural Youth Have Fewer Chances

Over 3 million rural families are living on less than $3,000 a year—about a third of these have only $80 a month to cover their needs. Their children get little, sometimes no schooling. More than half a million rural young men between the ages of 16 and 21 have not completed elementary school. Many of the rural youths join the legion of unskilled and uneducated workers who come to the city in search of better opportunities. Some find that they have merely exchanged rural privation for an urban slum.

Large numbers of the young men who have grown up in the midst of urban or rural poverty are found among the one-third of all Selective Service registrants who are designated unfit for military service. Four-fifths of those disqualified for "mental" reasons have not completed high school; nearly a third are unemployed; and their rate of unemployment is four times that of other young men of comparable age.

The Employment Service has had, since its very beginning, a special concern for youth employment problems. Long before the Wagner-Peyser Act laid the foundation for a "national system of public employment offices for men, women, and juniors" special junior divisions had been set up in the local employment offices of a number of cities. Research carried on over the years led to the development of a number of tools and guides for use in work with young people. By 1930, junior divisions were being operated in some 30 cities through State and local public employment offices. With the establishment of a national system of public employment offices under the Wagner-Peyser Act, specialized junior placement service became available in a steadily increasing number of offices. By 1937, 24 States and the District of Columbia had specialized youth services in 82 local offices in 55 cities, with a trained staff including nearly 300 youth counselors.

During most of the early years, however, service to youth was necessarily a relatively minor concern of the local offices. The millions of unemployed, experienced adult workers competing for the few jobs available during the massive depression of the 1930's absorbed most of the staff time of the local offices. Unemployed youth were encouraged to stay in school, or to enroll in CCC camps, National Youth Administration programs, and other special youth relief projects, or searched desperately for any type of work that could be found.

The situation was dramatically reversed with the outbreak of World War II in Europe, when the United States began a large-scale national defense program accompanied by a rapid buildup of the Armed Forces. The resulting labor demands produced more job opportunities for youth than ever before, with a consequent increase in school dropout rates and large-scale migrations of young people from rural areas to the cities. As long as young people could find jobs readily or were drafted into the armed services, little need was felt for their vocational guidance, and special youth services in local offices were largely abandoned.

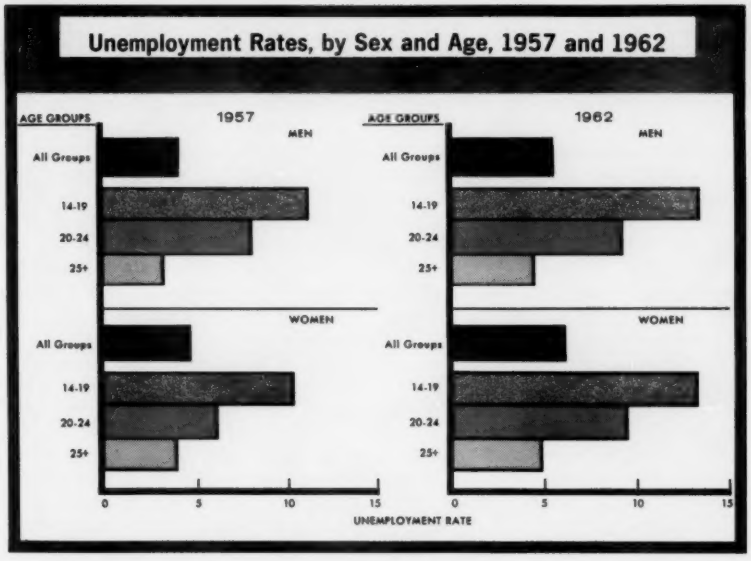
The end of hostilities revived some concern for the labor market problems of youth. Young people were among the first to be laid off with the

dismantling of war production, while the demobilized servicemen—many with no previous civilian work experience or training—flooded back to try to establish themselves in the postwar economy. Rapid economic growth, the benefits provided under the "GI Bill," and later, demand stemming from the Korean action all served to ease the transition, which was accomplished with a minimum of unemployment. During the decade of the 1950's, however, some concern began to emerge over the job market problems of young people.

It was during this period that the Employment Service initiated its cooperative program with the high schools. This program is directed to the noncollege-bound members of senior classes who plan to enter the labor force after graduation. Lending impetus to this program on a national scale was the introduction into the schools of the GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY, which was proving itself of great value in indicating the potentialities of inexperienced and not yet occupationally set youngsters. It was obvious that time and effort could be saved by group testing of students at the school. The tests could then be followed by individual counseling interviews, and by referral to suitable jobs upon graduation.

Other features of the cooperative high school program include: Furnishing occupational information to the schools; guidance talks to senior classes; participation in school-sponsored "cancer days"; proficiency tests in stenography or typing; and special services to school dropouts.

The cooperative program with the schools has now been in existence for 17 years, and it is growing steadily in its coverage. In 1963, formal programs were carried on with over 10,800 high schools, over half of all the secondary schools in the country. Of the 586,500 graduates registered by the Employment Service, 361,400 were counseled and about 345,000 were given aptitude tests to prepare them for making an occupational choice. Arrangements with many of the schools included the referral of about 50,000 dropouts to the Employment Service for counseling and placement assistance; of these, over 42 percent were placed in nonagricultural jobs.



Important as the school program continues to be, it is nevertheless only one facet of local office services to youth. Young people with varied backgrounds and needs come to the public employment offices for a broad range of job market services. During 1963, the offices registered 3½ million youth (under 22 years of age) seeking employment and placed 1,548,000 in nonagricultural jobs. Employment counseling was provided to 695,000 youth to assist them in relating their interests and potentialities to suitable fields of work.

As the result of counseling, many youth were referred to training (vocational school, apprenticeship, on-the-job, ARA, MDTA, State youth conservation camps, private industry, etc.) to increase their employability and help them to achieve their vocational goals. During the first 17 months (through January 31, 1964) of the operation of the MDTA program, about 156,000 screening interviews were held with youth to determine their interest in and qualifications for MDTA training; 26,000 of them were referred to MDTA training.

Late in February 1964, at the direction of the President, Selective Service began referring all young men who failed the Armed Forces Qualifications Test to the Employment Service. These young men are primarily disadvantaged and educationally deficient; they will need intensive counseling and assistance to prepare them for gainful employment.

The Employment Service must, of course, continue to provide a balanced program of service to all elements in the community who come to the local office for assistance in the solution of labor market problems. This has long since gone well beyond the registration and referral of unemployed workers to encompass assistance to employers in meeting special recruitment needs and in the solution of job analysis, training, and other personnel management problems, and to work with community groups in programs for the economic development of the area.

The times, however, call for a new focus on the problems of youth and a reorientation in the philosophy, the attitudes, the accepted practices, the tools and techniques used by the employment offices in providing services to youth. As a Nation, we have only recently come to an understanding and acceptance of the public responsibility and the need for programs specifically geared to the optimum de-

velopment and utilization of our manpower resources. And even more recently have we begun to recognize the extent and meaning of poverty in America. It has long been a tenet of American thinking that every poor boy has the opportunity through diligence and hard work to rise above the circumstances of his birth to a higher rung on the economic ladder. The realization has come as a shock that poverty may be handed down as a legacy from father to son, that for millions of families poverty has been an unbroken cycle for several generations.

Unemployment is related to poverty for only a minority of the heads of poor families. Most of them are not unemployed—they are not even in the labor force. They are men past working age according to existing hiring practices, those suffering from chronic disability, or women responsible for the care of young children. Some form of welfare assistance or social insurance may be the only possible answer to their problems at this time. But the cycle of poverty must be broken through their children, who must be helped to achieve employability and ultimately the jobs that will make them productive and self-respecting members of society.

Increasing the employability of the individual is the key to the manpower programs of the 1960's. During the 1930's, the answers to the problems of massive unemployment were generally held to be programs for income maintenance—monetary compensation, social insurance against the risks of joblessness, growing old, disability, and the loss of the family breadwinner. Income maintenance is still essential today, and it is widely agreed that such programs must be extended and increased. But they provide no answer to the worker whose skill has become obsolete through technological change, to the unskilled worker in an economy that increasingly calls for higher levels of skill and education, or to the undereducated, untrained youth facing the disappearance of low-level entry jobs.

Guided by Karl Kinn, psychologist and architect of the University of Pennsylvania, volunteers plant a tree to help create a commons in front of a Washington, D.C., Community Center.

It has become clear that job opportunities for large numbers of youth have dried up, and that the problems are concentrated among certain groups of youth—both urban and rural—who share a number of interrelated characteristics. These include being undereducated, without skill or training, frequently members of minority groups, and lacking in stable family and social relationships. These are the disadvantaged youth, so disadvantaged that they were largely bypassed by even the manpower programs developed in the past few years. Such legislation as the ARA and the MDTA was specifically designed to increase employability through training and retraining, but the programs had little meaning to those who could not qualify for entrance to occupational training courses, or to those to whom the very idea of "school" or "classroom" was frightening or repugnant.

The new orientation is reflected in the recent changes in program emphasis, in the development of new programs, and in the proposals currently pending before the Congress. The focus is on the disadvantaged, especially youth, and the goal is employability. It is significant that with less than 18 months of experience under the MDTA, the Congress found it necessary to amend the training provisions of the Act to permit and encourage greater participation by the very groups whose existence had for many years been largely ignored.

The changed direction is evident in the amendments lowering the age at which youngsters may qualify for training allowances, providing for the training of larger numbers of youth, and extending the length of the training period to provide for the development of literacy and basic work skills. The amendments also loosen the tie between training and the "reasonable prospect of employment" so that the emphasis is shifted to increasing employability and away from the concern with immediate placement in jobs.

Legislative proposals currently pending as part of the antipoverty program concentrate very heavily on disadvantaged youth and on a variety of means for increasing their employability. The National Job Corps proposal is directed specifically at this group. The Work-Study proposal is also aimed at this group by providing job and training opportunities for disadvantaged youth in their home communities. Programs now being developed for the depressed Appalachian region have as their objective the rehabilitation of some of the most disadvantaged segments of the population.

This current focus has basic and far-reaching implications for all of us in the Employment Service. Over the years, the local office has acquired experience in working with school dropouts, migrant workers, and other types of underprivileged Americans. But by and large except for the school program, its experience has been with those who came voluntarily to the local office in search of job assistance. Many of the groups we must now try to reach are no more likely to seek out the local office than to return to the school that they left prematurely. This has some implications for a rethinking of criteria for the location of local offices, but more immediately, it will require a reaching-out by the local office to the places where disadvantaged youth are to be found.

Much of our experience in dealing with school youth and young people who come to the local office may not be directly applicable here, since those most in need of assistance may be least likely to come to the office and have already dropped out of school. Some experiments with outstationing

have been undertaken in a few areas, but we have much to learn about how to reach out effectively into slum areas, settlement houses, and other places where such youth are to be found. It is possible that we will have to enlist the cooperation of social workers and of various types of neighborhood and community groups who have preceded us into this complex area of social and economic rehabilitation. This does not mean that we can expect to develop a single pattern that will be appropriate to all situations. More likely, a variety of patterns will emerge, but it is clear that we will not be able to adhere rigidly to the present standards for the location of employment offices.

It is also clear that the reorganization of local offices along occupational-industrial lines that began only a few years ago in the largest metropolitan areas will require some modification if we are to deal effectively with the problems of disadvantaged youth. While this form of organization is highly efficient in conducting the regular business of the local office, it necessitates intensified efforts to mobilize the specialized resources of the office to deal with the new problems. We have not yet learned how to bring to bear the capabilities and expert know-how of the testing specialist, the labor market analyst, the counselor, the employer relations representative, and the placement staff in the way that will be most effective in meeting the needs of the applicant with special problems.

Work Outside Local Office

Beyond that, we must to a greater extent, go outside the local office to extend and strengthen relationships with community groups and specialized agencies that can contribute to the solution of vocational and prevocational problems. These may include vocational rehabilitation agencies, family counseling and other social work groups, psychiatric services, public health departments, boys clubs, PTAs, the "Y"s, and various special schools and training institutions. We are called upon to develop a thorough knowledge of the capabilities, resources, and facilities of other agencies in the community, to learn to diagnose problems, to know when the problems, require expert outside assistance, and to learn where such assistance can be obtained.

It is obvious that counseling occupies a key role in the new approach to the problems of disadvantaged youth. We have already come to recognize the importance of employment counseling in the local office and have embarked on a long-range program to upgrade the qualifications, the standards, and the salaries of employment counselors and to increase their numbers. We will also have to reexamine the whole counseling process in the local office. Dealing with the disadvantaged youth, for many of whom the so-called "middle-class" standards and values have little meaning or relevance, will require innovation, new techniques, and perhaps even a different type of counselor.

While high academic standards are undoubtedly of great value in developing professionally qualified counselors, they may contribute little to the preparation needed to communicate with young people who are growing up in a totally different social environment. Long before he is ready for long-range vocational counseling, the deprived youth may need to acquire motivation, a feeling of identification, and aspirations—all of which may be alien to his background.

Solutions may have to be sought in the greatly expanded use of group counseling techniques, of trained but nonprofessional "indigenous" workers to assist the counselors, and of adequately prepared and supervised volunteers. Traditionally, the Employment Service has made little use of volunteer workers, but some reconsideration may be in order both to relieve shortages of professional personnel and to obtain the services of persons with especially needed abilities.

Far-reaching implications may be raised by reexamination of existing employment service tools and techniques to adapt them to the new requirements. In the field of counseling, this may mean the development of different counseling techniques and a recognition that one or two counseling sessions may not begin to be adequate. Counseling for this group may need to be a long-term process continuing through the prevocational preparation phase until a satisfactory vocational adjustment is achieved. The assignment of each youth to a counselor who will continue with him through the entire process may be necessary.

Need For Test Development

Similarily, new approaches are opening up in the area of test development with the recognition that existing tests are not adequate for the undereducated and culturally deprived. A start has been made in the development and recent introduction of nonverbal tests of ability, but further investigation is urgently needed here, as well as a continuing examination of the applicability of specific occupational tests in an economy where jobs and job content are changing rapidly.

Finally, we in the Employment Service will have to reorient our thinking and our concepts of manpower services and responsibilities in some very significant ways. While placement—the matching of workers and jobs—is an essential function of the local office, a broader conception of that function is required if we are to be equal to the demands of today's manpower policies and programs. Increasing the employability of disadvantaged youth necessarily implies ultimate placement in a suitable job, but this may involve a long process with many prevocational phases before the final objective is achieved. We will need to become somewhat less "placement-oriented" in the narrow sense and more alert to the broad range of manpower services.

We can expect that our steadily mounting manpower responsibilities will tax to the utmost our best efforts, our resourcefulness, and our dedication. But there can be no greater personal reward than the knowledge that we have helped some of our fellow human beings move out of the category of "disadvantaged" into useful, productive, and satisfying achievement.

Miami's Approach to Youth Training

MICHAEL H. HOUCHARD

Community cooperation aids a special project to train 500 unemployed youth.

The Miami special youth project, authorized under the Manpower Development and Training Act, was initiated in January 1964 to meet the increasing and pressing need for providing vocational training to certain segments of the area's youth population. These segments include youths who are unable to obtain employment for such reasons as lack of any skill and failure to complete high school. The project involves 500 youths between the ages of 16 and 22 years. When the program was initiated, it was determined that approximately 5,000 youths in this age range (exclusive of Cuban refugees) were unemployed in the greater Miami area. Consequently, when the community was made aware of the needs of the youth in the area, support from civic, social, and business organizations for the project was obtained without difficulty.

The program was developed through the close cooperation of the Director of Adult, Technical, and Vocational Education in the Dade County School System, and the Youth Manpower Coordinator at Lindsey Hopkins Educational Center, who, at the time the youth project was conceived, was Manpower Coordinator with the Miami Area Office of the Employment Service. The vocational facilities and training instructors of the Dade County school system are being used for the youth project as they have been utilized for all the MDTA programs in the county.

Every 10 weeks the Employment Service recruits 100 trainees for the project. The ES counsels and tests each trainee before referring him to the training facility. The basic factor used by the Employment Service in selecting applicants is their ability to read and understand the written tests. If an applicant is found to be retarded or physically handicapped, he is referred to the Florida State Vocational Rehabilitation Division. The Employment Service responsibility to the trainee continues throughout his training. For example, regularly scheduled joint evaluations of students are conducted by employment service counselors and vocational training counselors. When the trainee has completed the course and is ready to enter the labor market, the training facility refers him back to the Employment Service for job placement and followup.

The project is divided into two phases. The first consists of 10 weeks of prevocational training. This period is devoted primarily to assessment of each trainee and to a determination of his suitability and qualifications for more specific occupational training. Each trainee receives guidance, testing, and counseling to determine his interest, aptitudes, and attitudes.

The 8-hour classroom days during this 10-week period are divided into

Michael H. Houchard is Manpower Training Coordinator, Miami Metropolitan Area, Florida State Employment Service.

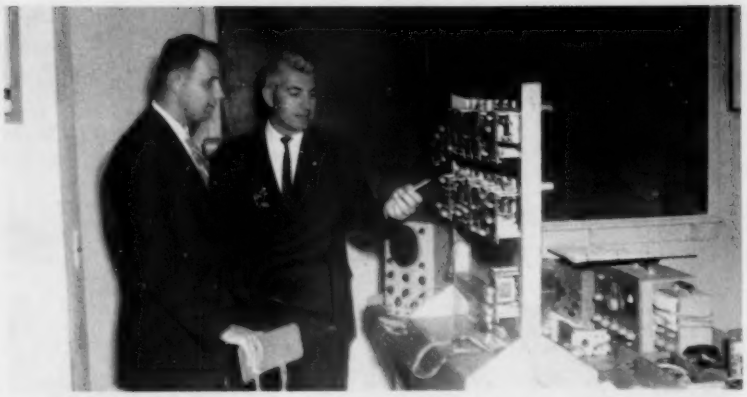
two parts. First, 5 hours are devoted to remedial education, covering communication (reading and writing), applied mathematics, applied science, and employer-employee relations. Second, 3 hours each day are devoted to an introduction to the five broad areas in which specific vocational training will be given. This information is designed to help the trainees in choosing specific occupational training.

The broad occupational areas are internal combustion engines, industrial electricity and electronics, machining and fabricating, aviation trades, and service trades and office occupations. These areas were chosen only after a careful survey of the business community and the potential applicant supply. All include demand and growth occupations. The survey of the business community also resulted in assurance of complete cooperation from the area's businessmen for MDTA in general and the youth project in particular.

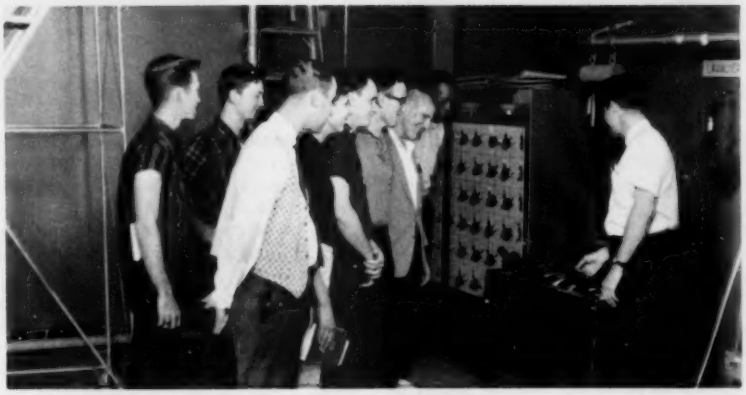
The following tabulation shows the makeup and characteristics of the first section of the youth project.

Characteristics of trainees	*Number*
Total enrolled	98
Age:	
Under 19	54
19–21	44
Education:	
Under 8 years	6
8 years	17
9–11 years	41
12 years	34
Unemployed:	
Under 5 weeks	20
5–14 weeks	17
15–20 weeks	8
27–52 weeks	10
Over 52 weeks	43

Tests administered during the first week of training showed that the first group of 100 youths had an average of 8.7 years of educational attainment. Tests given to the same group at the end of the 10-week prevocational period showed that the training had increased the average education attainment to 9.8 years. These results point up the value of the prevocational training. Although this project is still in the early stages, we are pleased with the results thus far and look forward to giving further assistance to this segment of our young population.



Michael S. Cugno, Manpower Coordinator, Dade County Vocational School System (right), and Michael H. Houchard, Manpower Coordinator, FSES, discuss electronic equipment used in the Miami Youth Project.



Field visits are a part of the training course. Here students learn at first hand about electrical and electronics trades.

The use of a giant slide rule helps the students understand its use during an applied mathematics session.

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Employer-student open house in Martinsburg in May 1963.

Bringing Service to Rural Youth

ETHEL FRYER

ES area counselors adapt techniques to meet the special needs of youth in rural areas, providing an effective approach to their job problems.

The Employment Service in West Virginia this year is serving 146 high schools with a senior enrollment of approximately 14,000. Among these schools are 115 which are considered rural, since they are located in outlying nonurban coal mining and farming sections. Some have less than 20 seniors.

Few rural and small urban schools have guidance teachers or adequate library facilities. Vocational training is often limited to vocational-agriculture and home economics. Classes in occupations are not given in these schools where they are needed most.

In towns where industry is diversified, young people see many different occupations, frequently hold part-time jobs, are interviewed by employers, and know fairly well what to expect in a job interview. In contrast, many teenagers in rural areas were born and reared in communities with no industrial activity, where nonfarm jobs are limited to the small grocery store and the crossroads service station. They have never had a job or applied for one, and have only a vague idea of what is expected of a worker. Their work experience is limited to chores about home and an occasional day on a neighbor's small farm. In such areas, youths face a choice of poor paying, intermittent, seasonal farm work at home or moving to an urban area for a wider job choice. Low family income and educational level of parents frequently provide little motivation even for attending school.

In an effort to give better service in rural areas where the needs were great, area counseling was instituted on a limited scale several years ago. Three experienced counselors were assigned on a full-time basis. Each serves in the office where he is administratively assigned and in an adjacent office; he is functionally responsible to the manager of the office in whose area he is serving. The area counselor prepares for each manager an advance itinerary showing where he will be each day.

The usual employment service procedures had to be adapted to develop the program for rural high schools. Overall planning and careful scheduling are required if available time of students and counselors is to be used effectively and cost of travel kept to a minimum. Frequently, the average of two counseling interviews

Ethel Fryer is State Counseling Supervisor, West Virginia Department of Employment Security.

per student is inadequate and more must be given if possible.

One outlying school, which had 22 seniors one year, is located 100 miles from the employment office. The counselor had worked in the school the previous year and the principal was familiar with the counseling procedures. On his first visit, the counselor explained to the entire senior class the ES services offered. After screening out those students who did not want or need either counseling or placement service, he monitored self-registration for those in need of assistance. In the afternoon of the same day, he administered the GATB and set dates for counseling interviews. Because of school bus schedules, some students begin classes at 7:30 a.m. and leave at 2:30 p.m. The counselor must be ready to begin work when school beings and to schedule interviews later in the afternoon with those who do not travel by bus.

Employment Service counselors must often provide a wider variety of information to rural youth than to teenagers in industrial areas. The youth must learn enough about his vocational assets to enable him to make more than one occupational choice, if changing conditions force him to give up his first preference. More information must be given in all areas: self-evaluation in relation to job requirements, where jobs are to be found, how to complete application forms, and how to prepare for an interview with a prospective employer.

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Since youth in rural areas often do not know about apprenticeship requirements and opportunities, counselors arrange with school authorities for a representative from the Bureau of Apprenticeship to explain the program to the students. Information on other available vocational training and job opportunities, including Civil Service, and jobs in clearance, is given by the counselor.

If few employment opportunities are available in the rural area, youth must be encouraged to go where suitable work can be found. But just to move from a rural to an unknown urban area is not the answer. First he must know what he can and would enjoy doing and where such work can be found. He must have some assurance when he leaves home that a job is waiting for him, or the move from his home environment can be a disappointing and discouraging experience. However practical and independent a rural youth may be in his accustomed environment, he may lack confidence in his ability to cope with the unknown. The counselor must boost his initiative and confidence to lift him from his accustomed orbit and pave the way to get him started in something new.

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Not all efforts of the Employment Service counselor are successful; disappointments are plentiful. Lack of motivation, interest, aptitude, and other limitations imposed by environment are hard-to-surmount obstacles.

To meet the needs of youth in the rural areas of West Virginia, more counselors will be required. Within the limit of our existing resources, however, we have found area counseling to be an effective approach to the job problems of rural youth.

Through counseling interviews, young people get information about job opportunities.

May 1989

velopment and utilization of our manpower resources. And even more recently have we begun to recognize the extent and meaning of poverty in America. It has long been a tenet of American thinking that every poor boy has the opportunity through diligence and hard work to rise above the circumstances of his birth to a higher rung on the economic ladder. The realization has come as a shock that poverty may be handed down as a legacy from father to son, that for millions of families poverty has been an unbroken cycle for several generations.

Unemployment is related to poverty for only a minority of the heads of poor families. Most of them are not unemployed—they are not even in the labor force. They are men past working age according to existing hiring practices, those suffering from chronic disability, or women responsible for the care of young children. Some form of welfare assistance or social insurance may be the only possible answer to their problems at this time. But the cycle of poverty must be broken through their children, who must be helped to achieve employability and ultimately the jobs that will make them productive and self-respecting members of society.

Increasing the employability of the individual is the key to the manpower programs of the 1960's. During the 1930's, the answers to the problems of massive unemployment were generally held to be programs for income maintenance—monetary compensation, social insurance against the risks of joblessness, growing old, disability, and the loss of the family breadwinner. Income maintenance is still essential today, and it is widely agreed that such programs must be extended and increased. But they provide no answer to the worker whose skill has become obsolete through technological change, to the unskilled worker in an economy that increasingly calls for higher levels of skill and education, or to the undereducated, untrained youth facing the disappearance of low-level entry jobs.

Guided by Karl Kinn, psychologist and architect of the University of Pennsylvania, volunteers plant a tree to help create a commons in front of a Washington, D.C., Community Center.

It has become clear that job opportunities for large numbers of youth have dried up, and that the problems are concentrated among certain groups of youth—both urban and rural—who share a number of interrelated characteristics. These include being undereducated, without skill or training, frequently members of minority groups, and lacking in stable family and social relationships. These are the disadvantaged youth, so disadvantaged that they were largely bypassed by even the manpower programs developed in the past few years. Such legislation as the ARA and the MDTA was specifically designed to increase employability through training and retraining, but the programs had little meaning to those who could not qualify for entrance to occupational training courses, or to those to whom the very idea of "school" or "classroom" was frightening or repugnant.

The new orientation is reflected in the recent changes in program emphasis, in the development of new programs, and in the proposals currently pending before the Congress. The focus is on the disadvantaged, especially youth, and the goal is employability. It is significant that with less than 18 months of experience under the MDTA, the Congress found it necessary to amend the training provisions of the Act to permit and encourage greater participation by the very groups whose existence had for many years been largely ignored.

The changed direction is evident in the amendments lowering the age at which youngsters may qualify for training allowances, providing for the training of larger numbers of youth, and extending the length of the training period to provide for the development of literacy and basic work skills. The amendments also loosen the tie between training and the "reasonable prospect of employment" so that the emphasis is shifted to increasing employability and away from the concern with immediate placement in jobs.

Legislative proposals currently pending as part of the antipoverty program concentrate very heavily on disadvantaged youth and on a variety of means for increasing their employability. The National Job Corps proposal is directed specifically at this group. The Work-Study proposal is also aimed at this group by providing job and training opportunities for disadvantaged youth in their home communities. Programs now being developed for the depressed Appalachian region have as their objective the rehabilitation of some of the most disadvantaged segments of the population.

This current focus has basic and far-reaching implications for all of us in the Employment Service. Over the years, the local office has acquired experience in working with school dropouts, migrant workers, and other types of underprivileged Americans. But by and large except for the school program, its experience has been with those who came voluntarily to the local office in search of job assistance. Many of the groups we must now try to reach are no more likely to seek out the local office than to return to the school that they left prematurely. This has some implications for a rethinking of criteria for the location of local offices, but more immediately, it will require a reaching-out by the local office to the places where disadvantaged youth are to be found.

Much of our experience in dealing with school youth and young people who come to the local office may not be directly applicable here, since those most in need of assistance may be least likely to come to the office and have already dropped out of school. Some experiments with outstationing

have been undertaken in a few areas, but we have much to learn about how to reach out effectively into slum areas, settlement houses, and other places where such youth are to be found. It is possible that we will have to enlist the cooperation of social workers and of various types of neighborhood and community groups who have preceded us into this complex area of social and economic rehabilitation. This does not mean that we can expect to develop a single pattern that will be appropriate to all situations. More likely, a variety of patterns will emerge, but it is clear that we will not be able to adhere rigidly to the present standards for the location of employment offices.

It is also clear that the reorganization of local offices along occupational-industrial lines that began only a few years ago in the largest metropolitan areas will require some modification if we are to deal effectively with the problems of disadvantaged youth. While this form of organization is highly efficient in conducting the regular business of the local office, it necessitates intensified efforts to mobilize the specialized resources of the office to deal with the new problems. We have not yet learned how to bring to bear the capabilities and expert know-how of the testing specialist, the labor market analyst, the counselor, the employer relations representative, and the placement staff in the way that will be most effective in meeting the needs of the applicant with special problems.

Work Outside Local Office

Beyond that, we must to a greater extent, go outside the local office to extend and strengthen relationships with community groups and specialized agencies that can contribute to the solution of vocational and prevocational problems. These may include vocational rehabilitation agencies, family counseling and other social work groups, psychiatric services, public health departments, boys clubs, PTAs, the "Y"s, and various special schools and training institutions. We are called upon to develop a thorough knowledge of the capabilities, resources, and facilities of other agencies in the community, to learn to diagnose problems, to know when the problems, require expert outside assistance, and to learn where such assistance can be obtained.

It is obvious that counseling occupies a key role in the new approach to the problems of disadvantaged youth. We have already come to recognize the importance of employment counseling in the local office and have embarked on a long-range program to upgrade the qualifications, the standards, and the salaries of employment counselors and to increase their numbers. We will also have to reexamine the whole counseling process in the local office. Dealing with the disadvantaged youth, for many of whom the so-called "middle-class" standards and values have little meaning or relevance, will require innovation, new techniques, and perhaps even a different type of counselor.

While high academic standards are undoubtedly of great value in developing professionally qualified counselors, they may contribute little to the preparation needed to communicate with young people who are growing up in a totally different social environment. Long before he is ready for long-range vocational counseling, the deprived youth may need to acquire motivation, a feeling of identification, and aspirations—all of which may be alien to his background.

Solutions may have to be sought in the greatly expanded use of group counseling techniques, of trained but nonprofessional "indigenous" workers to assist the counselors, and of adequately prepared and supervised volunteers. Traditionally, the Employment Service has made little use of volunteer workers, but some reconsideration may be in order both to relieve shortages of professional personnel and to obtain the services of persons with especially needed abilities.

Far-reaching implications may be raised by reexamination of existing employment service tools and techniques to adapt them to the new requirements. In the field of counseling, this may mean the development of different counseling techniques and a recognition that one or two counseling sessions may not begin to be adequate. Counseling for this group may need to be a long-term process continuing through the prevocational preparation phase until a satisfactory vocational adjustment is achieved. The assignment of each youth to a counselor who will continue with him through the entire process may be necessary.

Need For Test Development

Similarily, new approaches are opening up in the area of test development with the recognition that existing tests are not adequate for the undereducated and culturally deprived. A start has been made in the development and recent introduction of nonverbal tests of ability, but further investigation is urgently needed here, as well as a continuing examination of the applicability of specific occupational tests in an economy where jobs and job content are changing rapidly.

Finally, we in the Employment Service will have to reorient our thinking and our concepts of manpower services and responsibilities in some very significant ways. While placement—the matching of workers and jobs—is an essential function of the local office, a broader conception of that function is required if we are to be equal to the demands of today's manpower policies and programs. Increasing the employability of disadvantaged youth necessarily implies ultimate placement in a suitable job, but this may involve a long process with many prevocational phases before the final objective is achieved. We will need to become somewhat less "placement-oriented" in the narrow sense and more alert to the broad range of manpower services.

We can expect that our steadily mounting manpower responsibilities will tax to the utmost our best efforts, our resourcefulness, and our dedication. But there can be no greater personal reward than the knowledge that we have helped some of our fellow human beings move out of the category of "disadvantaged" into useful, productive, and satisfying achievement.

Miami's Approach to Youth Training

MICHAEL H. HOUCHARD

Community cooperation aids a special project to train 500 unemployed youth.

The Miami special youth project, authorized under the Manpower Development and Training Act, was initiated in January 1964 to meet the increasing and pressing need for providing vocational training to certain segments of the area's youth population. These segments include youths who are unable to obtain employment for such reasons as lack of any skill and failure to complete high school. The project involves 500 youths between the ages of 16 and 22 years. When the program was initiated, it was determined that approximately 5,000 youths in this age range (exclusive of Cuban refugees) were unemployed in the greater Miami area. Consequently, when the community was made aware of the needs of the youth in the area, support from civic, social, and business organizations for the project was obtained without difficulty.

The program was developed through the close cooperation of the Director of Adult, Technical, and Vocational Education in the Dade County School System, and the Youth Manpower Coordinator at Lindsey Hopkins Educational Center, who, at the time the youth project was conceived, was Manpower Coordinator with the Miami Area Office of the Employment Service. The vocational facilities and training instructors of the Dade County school system are being used for the youth project as they have been utilized for all the MDTA programs in the county.

Every 10 weeks the Employment Service recruits 100 trainees for the project. The ES counsels and tests each trainee before referring him to the training facility. The basic factor used by the Employment Service in selecting applicants is their ability to read and understand the written tests. If an applicant is found to be retarded or physically handicapped, he is referred to the Florida State Vocational Rehabilitation Division. The Employment Service responsibility to the trainee continues throughout his training. For example, regularly scheduled joint evaluations of students are conducted by employment service counselors and vocational training counselors. When the trainee has completed the course and is ready to enter the labor market, the training facility refers him back to the Employment Service for job placement and followup.

The project is divided into two phases. The first consists of 10 weeks of prevocational training. This period is devoted primarily to assessment of each trainee and to a determination of his suitability and qualifications for more specific occupational training. Each trainee receives guidance, testing, and counseling to determine his interest, aptitudes, and attitudes.

The 8-hour classroom days during this 10-week period are divided into

Michael H. Houchard is Manpower Training Coordinator, Miami Metropolitan Area, Florida State Employment Service.

two parts. First, 5 hours are devoted to remedial education, covering communication (reading and writing), applied mathematics, applied science, and employer-employee relations. Second, 3 hours each day are devoted to an introduction to the five broad areas in which specific vocational training will be given. This information is designed to help the trainees in choosing specific occupational training.

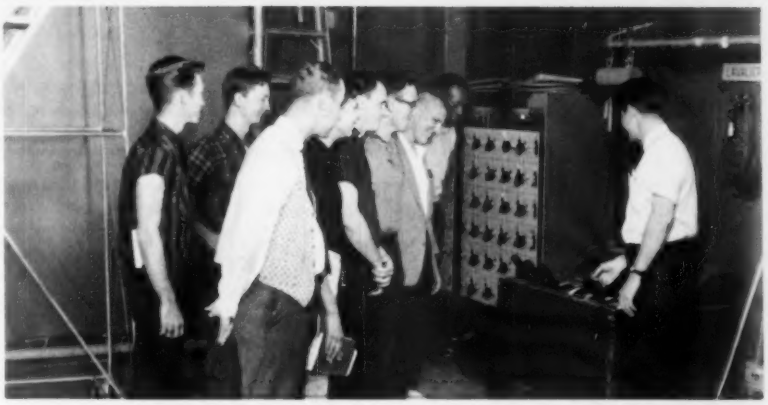
The broad occupational areas are internal combustion engines, industrial electricity and electronics, machining and fabricating, aviation trades, and service trades and office occupations. These areas were chosen only after a careful survey of the business community and the potential applicant supply. All include demand and growth occupations. The survey of the business community also resulted in assurance of complete cooperation from the area's businessmen for MDTA in general and the youth project in particular.

The following tabulation shows the makeup and characteristics of the first section of the youth project.

Characteristics of trainees	*Number*
Total enrolled	98
Age:	
Under 19	54
19–21	44
Education:	
Under 8 years	6
8 years	17
9–11 years	41
12 years	34
Unemployed:	
Under 5 weeks	20
5–14 weeks	17
15–20 weeks	8
27–52 weeks	10
Over 52 weeks	43

Tests administered during the first week of training showed that the first group of 100 youths had an average of 8.7 years of educational attainment. Tests given to the same group at the end of the 10-week prevocational period showed that the training had increased the average education attainment to 9.8 years. These results point up the value of the prevocational training. Although this project is still in the early stages, we are pleased with the results thus far and look forward to giving further assistance to this segment of our young population.

Michael S. Cugno, Manpower Coordinator, Dade County Vocational School System (right), and Michael H. Houchard, Manpower Coordinator, FSES, discuss electronic equipment used in the Miami Youth Project.



Field visits are a part of the training course. Here students learn at first hand about electrical and electronics trades.

The use of a giant slide rule helps the students understand its use during an applied mathematics session.

731-046 O—64——2

Employer-student open house in Martinsburg in May 1963.

Bringing Service to Rural Youth

ETHEL FRYER

ES area counselors adapt techniques to meet the special needs of youth in rural areas, providing an effective approach to their job problems.

The Employment Service in West Virginia this year is serving 146 high schools with a senior enrollment of approximately 14,000. Among these schools are 115 which are considered rural, since they are located in outlying nonurban coal mining and farming sections. Some have less than 20 seniors.

Few rural and small urban schools have guidance teachers or adequate library facilities. Vocational training is often limited to vocational-agriculture and home economics. Classes in occupations are not given in these schools where they are needed most.

In towns where industry is diversified, young people see many different occupations, frequently hold part-time jobs, are interviewed by employers, and know fairly well what to expect in a job interview. In contrast, many teenagers in rural areas were born and reared in communities with no industrial activity, where nonfarm jobs are limited to the small grocery store and the crossroads service station. They have never had a job or applied for one, and have only a vague idea of what is expected of a worker. Their work experience is limited to chores about home and an occasional day on a neighbor's small farm. In such areas, youths face a choice of poor paying, intermittent, seasonal farm work at home or moving to an urban area for a wider job choice. Low family income and educational level of parents frequently provide little motivation even for attending school.

In an effort to give better service in rural areas where the needs were great, area counseling was instituted on a limited scale several years ago. Three experienced counselors were assigned on a full-time basis. Each serves in the office where he is administratively assigned and in an adjacent office; he is functionally responsible to the manager of the office in whose area he is serving. The area counselor prepares for each manager an advance itinerary showing where he will be each day.

The usual employment service procedures had to be adapted to develop the program for rural high schools. Overall planning and careful scheduling are required if available time of students and counselors is to be used effectively and cost of travel kept to a minimum. Frequently, the average of two counseling interviews

Ethel Fryer is State Counseling Supervisor, West Virginia Department of Employment Security.

per student is inadequate and more must be given if possible.

One outlying school, which had 22 seniors one year, is located 100 miles from the employment office. The counselor had worked in the school the previous year and the principal was familiar with the counseling procedures. On his first visit, the counselor explained to the entire senior class the ES services offered. After screening out those students who did not want or need either counseling or placement service, he monitored self-registration for those in need of assistance. In the afternoon of the same day, he administered the GATB and set dates for counseling interviews. Because of school bus schedules, some students begin classes at 7:30 a.m. and leave at 2:30 p.m. The counselor must be ready to begin work when school beings and to schedule interviews later in the afternoon with those who do not travel by bus.

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To meet the needs of youth in the rural areas of West Virginia, more counselors will be required. Within the limit of our existing resources, however, we have found area counseling to be an effective approach to the job problems of rural youth.

Through counseling interviews, young people get information about job opportunities.

This job clinic to help young people find and keep employment is being conducted by Leo Sperling, Youth Unit Supervisor, in Bridgeport local office.

CSES Job Clinics Advise Youth . . .

"Put Your Best Foot Forward"

JOSEPH P. DYER

A clinic that offers expert occupational advice along with actual practice before a local hiring official helps young jobseekers learn the fundamentals of creating favorable impressions and selling themselves to employers.

Good jobseeking techniques are a basic need in urban labor markets which are burgeoning with untrained and unskilled youth.

The Connecticut style job clinic provides its participants not only with advice but also a confrontation with a hiring official of a local business or commercial firm. The aim of the clinics is to teach young jobseekers to put their "best foot forward"—to show by their appearance, attitude, and speech that they will make good employees. In a period of 8 months, over 2,000 youth have attended the sessions.

Young people are taught such fundamentals as the importance of preparing a legible application; the necessity for suitable dress and appearance, with special emphasis on hair; and, most important, how to "sell" themselves to an employer by an attitude of sincerity and interest in the employer's job. Equally significant, the youth are helped to develop a more realistic image of themselves in the job world.

Among the personnel advisors have been representatives of banks, utilities, manufacturers, hospitals, retail stores, restaurants, hotels, municipal, State, and Federal Government agencies, labor organizations, and the armed services.

Individually, the clinics have included the president of a large machine manufacturing firm, the director of a child guidance clinic, a school superintendent, a training director, and a supervisor of waitresses. Their interest in the project is shown by their expressed willingness to participate in subsequent clinics.

All interviewing and counseling staff discuss this new job aid with youthful applicants when they first apply to the office. As a result, response to call-in cards requesting attendance at a "Put Your Best Foot Forward Meeting" has been most encouraging. Often, attendance at a session is augmented by on-the-spot referrals from the current hour's traffic.

Sessions are geared to the needs of youth with a variety of problems. Among them may be the youth seeking his first job, the chronic jobhopper, the applicant failing to get employer acceptance after several referrals, the lackadaisical jobseeker, or the school dropout.

Our initial efforts to present a lecture-type clinic were greatly modified, not only because of apparent boredom on the part of the youthful audience, but also because no discussion or interchange of ideas resulted. In the absence of "feedback" from the youngsters, we could not be sure which problem areas were of special concern to them.

We next tried a role-playing technique, which has been validated in group situations such as we find in counseling, education, and therapy. The results were good, and there was no need for extensive planning—in fact, a rigid plan would be of no value at all. We obtained definite audience participation, and, at least some feedback has resulted. Consequently we were able to cover such subjects as race discrimination, which while often a contributing factor in the lack of job opportunity, some youngsters use to rationalize their poor attitude, behavior, and appearance.

The effectiveness of a job clinic

(*Continued on page 22*)

Joseph P. Dyer is Assistant Director, Connecticut State Employment Service. This article is a composite of experiences reported by Youth Unit Supervisors Tom Egan, New Haven; Leo Sperling, Bridgeport; and David Katzin, Hartford, who have nurtured a job clinic series developed by the Connecticut State Employment Service.

MANPOWER TRENDS

TOTAL EMPLOYMENT NEARS 70 MILLION IN APRIL

Total employment (including farmworkers, domestics, self-employed, and family workers, as well as wage and salary workers) increased by 1.4 million to 69.9 million in April. The gain from March was 750,000 more than usual for the month. About 1.8 million more persons were employed this April than last. Seasonally adjusted, two-thirds of the over-the-month increase in nonagricultural employment was among women, many working part time voluntarily. Making up for earlier delays caused by bad weather, the March-April increase in farm jobs was slightly larger than usual. At 73.8 million in April, the civilian labor force expanded 500,000 from March and was 1.6 million higher than a year ago.

UNEMPLOYMENT DROPS SEASONALLY

Unemployment dropped another 400,000 from March to 3.9 million in April. With joblessness declining about normally since February, the seasonally adjusted unemployment rate continued at 5.4 percent of the civilian labor force for the third straight month. The slight decrease from the 5.7 percent rate of last April reflected a drop in the rate for adult men to 3.8 percent. The March-April rate for adult women did not change significantly, but the teenage jobless rate rose to 16 percent.

LOWER UNEMPLOYMENT IN MAJOR AREAS

May changes in classifications of the 150 major labor market areas regularly surveyed by the BES and affiliated State agencies reflected lower unemployment, except for the shift of Muskegon-Muskegon Heights, Mich. from moderate to substantial unemployment. Remaining unchanged from April, 111 major areas had relatively low or moderate unemployment, compared with 107 last May. Major areas with substantial unemployment remained unchanged from April at 39, 4 less than in May a year ago.

In South Bend, affected by the recent closing of a major auto plant, unemployment shifted downward from Group E (9 to 12 percent of the work force) to Group D (6 to 8.9 percent).

INSURED UNEMPLOYMENT LOWEST SINCE 1957

Insured unemployment under State programs, down a slightly more than seasonal 350,000 from mid-March, totaled 1.8 million in April. This was the smallest for the month since 1957. By the end of April, insured joblessness dropped another 160,000 to 1.6 million. Declines occurred in all States except Maine and New Hampshire, amounting

731-046 O—64——3

to more than 25,000 in New York, Pennsylvania, California, and Ohio. The insured unemployment rate dropped from 5.0 percent in March to 4.2 percent in April (not seasonally adjusted), compared with 4.8 percent a year ago. As against seven States in March, only three had rates in excess of 7.0 percent in April: Alaska 13.3, North Dakota 8.0, and Maine 7.2. Rates were 5.5 percent or above in another eight States, including California, Massachusetts, and New Jersey, but ranged from 2.2 to 3.1 percent in Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Texas. An estimated 150,000 persons exhausted State benefit rights this April compared with 140,000 in March and 165,000 a year earlier.

NONFARM EMPLOYERS ADD A HALF MILLION WORKERS

Instead of a normal seasonal increase of about 300,000, nonfarm wage and salary employment rose by 500,000 in April to 57.9 million, mainly reflecting the bulk of the spring trade pickup, which occurred after the mid-March employment survey. An unexpected rise in manufacturing jobs was also responsible for the higher than usual April advance in nonfarm payrolls. Since last April, nonfarm payroll employment has increased 1.4 million, with largest gains in services and State and local government--each up by over 300,000 jobs. Manufacturing and trade payrolls each added about 250,000 workers; construction added 100,000; and finance, 70,000, over the year.

MORE JOBS IN METALS INDUSTRIES

Better-than-seasonal performance in the major metals and metal-using industries, including electrical equipment, which had been declining since mid-1963, accounted for the unexpected rise in factory employment to nearly 17.1 million. On a seasonally adjusted basis, the primary metals group has gained steadily in recent months and, by April, these jobs were back to the comparatively high levels of June and July 1963. Reflecting continued strength in the auto industry, transportation equipment jobs have increased 50,000 since January. Over the past 3 months, employment gains in manufacturing industries total 165,000, seasonally adjusted--135,000 in the metals sector.

FACTORY WORKWEEK AT HIGH LEVEL

The factory workweek averaged 40.4 hours during April, as in March, maintaining, on a seasonally adjusted basis, the same comparatively high level for 3 months. Average overtime, at 2.8 hours, was the same as March. Last April, weekly hours averaged 39.9 and overtime 2.4 hours.

WEEKLY EARNINGS

Hourly earnings of factory production workers edged up one cent in April to $2.52. Average weekly earnings rose to $101.81--up 41 cents from the previous month and $4.45 higher than last year.

Oral and written communication is part of the prevocational training.

Training Disadvantaged Youth in Chattanooga

GLENN ERVIN

A project to give vocational guidance and training for satisfactory employment to discouraged, undereducated, and untrained youth presents problems but offers bright hopes for success.

Growing community-wide interest in the school dropout and unemployed youth problems led to the development of an occupational training program for young people under 21 years of age in the Chattanooga area, comprising Hamilton County, Tenn., and Walker County, Ga.

The project was prepared and activated under provisions of the Manpower Development and Training Act through the combined efforts of the State and local Employment Service offices, the State Board for Vocational Education, and the Chattanooga City School Board, with vital support from local community groups and individuals.

The original planning group for the training program included the Chattanooga Employment Security District Manager, ES–MDTA Coordinator, administrative staff members of the city school system, and representatives of the Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education.

An abandoned school building in an urban renewal area was designated as the Youth Occupational Training Center. It was completely renovated and placed in excellent condition to meet the needs of the project.

To conduct the training, the State Department of Education staffed the center with a supervisor, two guidance teachers, two specialists in communications, two specialists in applied mathematics, and six occupational instructors.

The project is designed to assist discouraged, undereducated, and undertrained youth to acquire manual and technical skills leading to satisfactory employment. To accomplish this goal, the training method provides opportunity and incentive to trainees through a combination of exploratory occupational experiences, counseling, testing, and specific occupational training.

The project offers 38 weeks of training to 240 youths. Classes for the first 120 trainees began on February 2 and will end October 15, 1964. A second group of 120 trainees will enter courses scheduled to start October 24 and terminate June 25, 1965.

Training courses are underway in the following occupations: electrical appliance repairs; sheet metal-machine work and welding; internal combustion engines—automobile engines and small engines; sales—merchandising and distribution; general clerical; and food preparation. Three of these occupations are considered suitable for girls.

Help From Outside

In recruiting potential trainees, the Chattanooga ES office received help from many outside sources. The Mayor's Committee for Full Employment, with its publicity subcommittee, assisted with newspaper stories, and radio and TV announcements. The Chattanooga Ministerial Association and the Hamilton County Baptist Association endorsed the project and furnished a mailing list of pastors to whom informational pamphlets and fact sheets were sent for their use in aiding recruitment efforts.

The Chattanooga local office mailed letters to more than 800 drop-

Glenn Ervin is Chief of Public Relations, Tennessee Department of Employment Security.

731–046 O—64——4

A class for general office clerks.

Area Youth Coordinator Mary E. Gore of Nashville (center) helped to launch the pre-vocational counseling phase of the training project. She is pictured here with Vocational Guidance Counselor Margaret James (left) and a student.

Studying electrical appliance repair.

outs, using lists received from the Chattanooga city schools, Hamilton County schools, and schools in the North Georgia area.

Prospective trainees were referred to the ES office by State and County welfare offices, the City Relief Bureau, parole officers, the Juvenile Court and Probation Department, and the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation.

Applicants who were interviewed for referral to the Training Center had to meet these qualifications: (1) 17 to 21, inclusive, years of age and out of school for at least 6 months (now 1 year after dropping out—under Public Law 88–214); (2) unemployed or underemployed dropouts; (3) physical and mental ability to benefit from training; and (4) willingness to accept employment wherever available.

One of the functions of the project's Coordinating Committee is to review the selection of occupations for training. This committee, chaired by the ES District Manager, is composed of representatives from labor, industry, city school system (administrative, vocational, and adult education), and the Bureau of Apprentice Training.

Characteristics of trainees	*Number*
Total	120
Sex:	
Male	80
Female	40
Color:	
White	92
Nonwhite	28
Age:	
Under 19 years	63
19–21 years	57
Education:	
Under 8 years	12
8 years	25
9–12 years	83
Parolees	2
Selective Service rejectees	7

First Weeks Are Exploratory

The first 6-week training period was of an exploratory nature to assist the young people in adjusting to their new experience and at the same time to offer some classwork that would help them in the following 32 weeks of intensive occupational training. Each day, 1 hour was devoted to remedial reading and oral and written communication; and 1 hour was devoted to applied mathematics. The remaining 4 hours were spent in shop work in a specific occupation. The classes were conducted in an informal manner in surroundings designed to look more like a shop or workroom than a schoolroom. Each class had a maximum of 20 trainees, so that time would be available for individual instruction.

During the exploratory period each trainee took the GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY. The ES testing staff anticipated that these young persons would probably have difficulty in taking the tests as the youths had been selected because of limited educational background. The booklet answer form of the GATB, B–1001 edition, was used rather than one of the separate answer sheet forms. Although not all of those taking the test scored well, they did seem to understand how to take the tests.

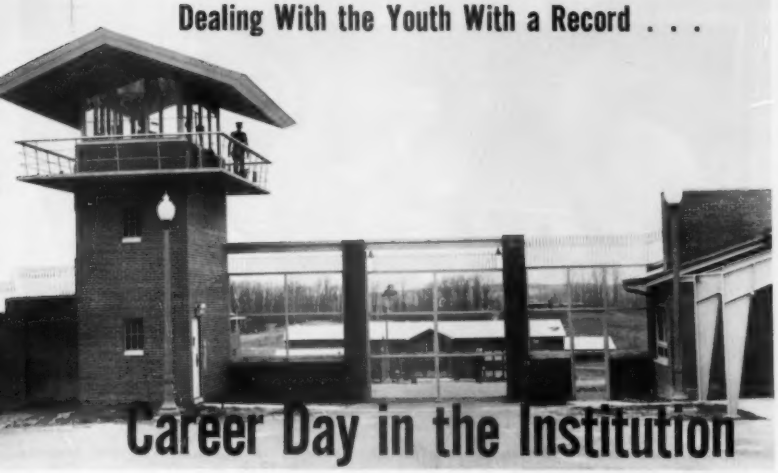
Each trainee received employment counseling interviews during the 5th and 6th weeks of the exploratory period. The guidance teachers of the Youth Training Center supplied background information to ES Counselors. The first interview was conducted to identify the trainee's qualifications for, and his interest in, a specific occupation. During the second interview, his abilities and deficiencies were discussed and a definite assignment made for 32 weeks of training in a specific occupation. Every effort was made to assist each individual to make his own decision in the selection of a training course.

The project has not been without its problems. By the end of the 4th week of the exploratory period, 17 trainees had dropped out. Various reasons were given; however, the two principal reasons seemed to be lack of motivation and the lack of training allowances for trainees under 19 years of age.

Replacements were made as dropouts occurred when the time remaining in the course was sufficient to train the new student to the entry level of the occupation.

Even though there have been a number of dropouts and many problems still exist, the morale of the trainees and the instructors continues to be high. Among other observations, a lack of respect for and rebellion against authority was noted in many of the youngsters, a majority of whom were from the lower economic strata of society. However, the employment counselors and staff of the school are optimistic about results of interviews, responses of trainees, and the ultimate success of this project for most of the youth involved.

Dealing With the Youth With a Record . . .



Career Day in the Institution

MILDRED HORNE

A new youth program is helping institutionalized youth with police records gain hope and incentive, as well as the information on available occupations and training needed for future employment.

"Out there on a scaffolding laying bricks you don't meet too many scholars. Some people just don't like school. I'm one of them." This argument against the importance of education was being advanced with all logic and seriousness by a husky youth who told of his hope to be a bricklayer—some day. He was 1 of 14 lads in their late teens and early twenties who were participating in one of the workshops at a recent career clinic in Lorton, Va.

What made the situation unusual was that the career clinic was being held within the walls of the Youth Center, an institution for juveniles from the metropolitan Washington, D.C. area, all serving sentences of indeterminate length for having committed felonies under the Youth Corrections Act. Each of the 147 clinic registrants, however, was looking forward to release in the foreseeable future. Attendance at the clinic was voluntary, and no special credit was expected for participating in it.

Mildred Horne, U.S. Employment Service.

The program was the second in a new youth series developed by the U.S. Department of Labor. Staff youth advisers, in cooperation with the D.C. Department of Correction, brought together for a day community leaders and employers interested and willing to cooperate in giving a chance to the youth who is handicapped in looking for employment because of a police record.

The first clinic was held at the Children's Center, an institution in Maryland for younger boys and girls who are considered delinquents, but without police records. This program, with Labor Department personnel acting as catalysts in recruiting the help of others in the community, showed considerable potential, and the lessons learned from it suggested modifications for the second one at Lorton. For example, the workshops at Lorton were smaller, the presentations made by consultants shorter, and the youth were drawn into more active involvement.

The theme of the Lorton program was "Train today for employment tomorrow." The object was to bring to the captive audience some down-to-earth occupational information, and to provide motivation for better adjustment in the difficult transition ahead from walls to work.

The clinic approach is a good example of "outreach" for youth as it is being implemented under Employment Service leadership. There are some 240 institutions for juvenile delinquents in the United States, and anyone who has worked with parolees from these institutions, who has counseled them, who has devoted hours and entire days accompanying them to appointments with prospective but not always enthusiastic employers, will have a heightened appreciation of the inherent and healthy possibilities in this program.

Background Creates Obstacles

While rehabilitation is the goal in correctional situations, the odds against success often seem almost insurmountable, and every reasonable expedient is worth a try. The typical juvenile offender has not one but many strikes against him. He is usually from a family of low socioeconomic status. He may be a member of a minority group, with all its attendant problems. He characteristically has a poor self-concept and lacks the strength to break the cycle of disillusionment into which he has been born. He does not feel the deep-down guilt for his anti-social behavior that is felt by the average youth from a middle-class environment. Law-breaking is a familiar way of life with many in the environment in which he is growing up.

This profile points to the types of special assistance needed in dealing with the youth with a record. Specialists advise that it is best not to hold out something too far in advance in talking with him about his future. His goals must be of a short-term nature; he doesn't have the vision or self-discipline to aim far into the future. In fact, he may not be able to see himself doing any specific work when he has his freedom. If he can be started in some job very soon after his release, his chances are better. Any conceivable device is worth consideration in dealing with youth thus disadvantaged, and their number is increasing, along with the rest of the youth population.

Career Day Program

The career program as it developed at Lorton was a typical community-

sponsored career day, which constituted one of its subtle appeals to the inmates. A glance at the agenda does not tell the full story. The formalities were carried out with the customary ceremonies, beginning with registration and coffee, and progressing through the expected remarks from officials of the Center, a chaplain, the Director of the D.C. Department of Corrections, and a guest speaker who is head of the Commissioners' Council on Human Relations. Thus the atmosphere was established for the workshops, which began at 10 in the morning and continued until 2:40, with a break for lunch.

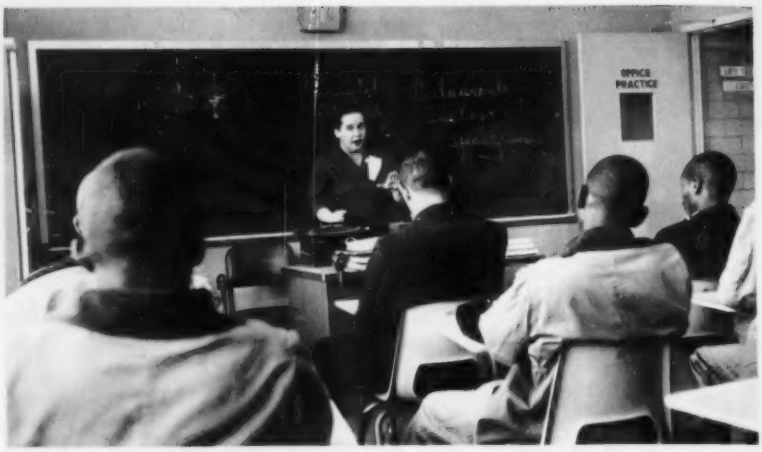
Topics covered specific employment possibilities in the metropolitan area, validated with names of employers who hire qualified parolees in whom they have confidence; the importance of education, of getting a high school diploma while in detention, through the General Educational Development (high school equivalency) test route, or later in night or correspondence school; getting and holding a job; attitudes, conduct, and grooming. Consultants represented such employers and organizations as the WASHINGTON STAR, a major metropolitan daily, which is an outstanding leader in rehabilitation through employment; the Rothstein Dental Laboratory; the D.C. Personnel Association; and officials from the D.C. Recreation Department, the youth organization called Washington Action for Youth, the D.C. Commissioners' Council on Human Relations, and the Bureau of Employment Security.

The closing session featured the executive director of the Urban League, a film, "I Never Went Back,"[1] on the employment difficulties of a high school dropout, and the climax of the whole program—a panel of success stories by three former inmates, who spoke informally from seats on the platform. Since the three were known to some of the current inmates, their experiences in getting and holding jobs, despite criminal records, aroused considerable interest among the young inmates. The audience was very attentive to the reports of the work with parole officers, the jobs for which they were turned down, the jobs they now hold, and their hopes for the future. And the youth were very quiet as one boy told of how he got a job by not mentioning his record, but of his concern when he was about to be promoted to a supervisory position and investigation disclosed the facts.

The Lorton Youth Center is atypical, as such institutions go. Situated in beautiful Virginia country, the buildings are attractive colonial style, clean, and modern. Each inmate has his own room and carries the key in his pocket, and each cottage has indoor and outdoor recreational facilities. The vocational training program is geared to preparation for jobs known to be available now and into the future; well equipped shop classrooms teach TV repair, food service of various types, shoe repair, barbering, typewriter and other business machine repair.

While a career day at a detention center is not a complete answer, it suggests many other plans being used in different frameworks in guiding the youth with a record into employment. For example, the prerelease centers, in which the Employment Service cooperated with the Bureau of Prisons, represent a very promising new concept. Career days can utilize many program aids beyond those used at the two events discussed. Chalk

(*Continued on page 18*)



Addressing youth almost ready for release from the Youth Center in Lorton, Va., Mrs. Laurette G. Hupman, Training Coordinator of the *Washington Evening Star*, stresses the importance of education in getting and holding a job.

SOME COMMENTS FROM THE SPEAKERS AT LORTON

"The biggest thing in applying for a job is your appearance. Next is filling in your application blank properly. Speed is not important, but accuracy is."

"Some companies cannot take boys with records because of their contracts with bonding companies. We are trying to make a special bonding arrangement for individuals with records so that blanket policies for all employees will not be jeopardized."

"Speak up when applying for a job. If you are asked a direct question, answer directly. If you can't talk to the guy sitting across the desk from you, you won't be able to speak to customers."

"To hold a job, be on time. There is no quicker way to lose a job than to show up late several times. Wherever time is involved, be sure."

"All employers are interested in whether you keep on with your education."

"Do the best you can, regardless of the type of job."

"We want to be able to promote you and move you along. We require that you have a high school diploma or be getting one. You must be able to find an address, figure change—even for jobs at the very bottom."

"Forget about your handicap. Let's not think about the past—only about tomorrow. You are going to write your future for yourself."

[1] *Another suitable film is "When I'm Old Enough, Goodbye!"*

Arkansas Serves Rural Youth

JAMES SELLERS

In bringing service to youth under the smaller communities program, the Employment Service counselor sometimes finds that the small rural high school does not have a school counselor. As in this case, the ES counselor may go beyond his usual role to give the kind of counseling usually done by the school counselor in other communities.

The Arkansas Smaller Communities program operates chiefly in rural and underdeveloped areas. Although the program is not designed primarily for rural youth, it has adjusted its operation to encompass their special needs. Young people in these areas have many problems and obstacles to overcome in achieving full and gainful employment which are not often encountered by urban or urban-educated youth.

Rural youths are often educated in small, understaffed schools lacking adequate counseling facilities. They are isolated from the industrial sections of the State and are not aware of the need for special education and training to compete successfully in the labor market. Normally, they are not exposed to college and university facilities and do not realize the benefits which accrue from further education.

These young people seldom hold part-time or summer jobs, other than on farms or in agricultural occupations. Most of them do not know how to secure a job, or the job requirements in different occupations. They rarely know how to prepare themselves for employment in business and industry. Most rural youths have had no contact with the Employment Service and have no knowledge of its services or operations. Many do not realize the value of aptitude tests and occupational counseling.

Historically, these areas have absorbed their labor force in farming and agriculture-supporting occupations. With the decline of farming operations and increased mechanization of the remaining farm jobs, there are not enough jobs to go around.

Young people who enter the labor market, either by graduation or by dropping out of school, have little choice but to:

1. Leave the area to seek permanent work in the more industrialized sections of the Nation; or

2. Join migrant, or seasonal, farm and harvest workers, who each year leave their homes to work a few months and return home during the off-season; or

3. Stay at home and compete for the few jobs that are still available—often at substandard wages.

The ideal answer to this dilemma would be the industrial and economic development of these areas with expanded opportunities to give the residents a suitable choice of jobs at home. Until this happens, there remain an opportunity and a challenge to the agencies and people concerned with these problems. We must inform, educate, and acquaint the youth of these areas with the problems ahead and arm them with information which may be used to overcome these obstacles.

A concerted effort is made by the Employment Service to register and test all senior students who will enter the labor market in each high school of the county. Temporary offices are set up in the school. Testing and counseling of 11th and 12th graders are accomplished by following the regular procedures for the ES graduating senior program. Since many of these students are not familiar with employment service functions, a detailed informational meeting precedes the testing sessions. The students are told that the work application and test records will be kept in the local office serving the area, and they are urged to contact that office for additional counseling or other assistance in securing a job.

The counseling interview obtains as much information as possible concerning the student's background, environment, financial status, and pertient occupational and educational data. Those students who seem to be potentially qualified to perform college level work and are interested are given all available information regarding existing colleges and universities in the area. Requirements for admission, the general curriculum, and average costs are discussed in detail as needed. If appropriate, the various scholarships, loans, and other assistance available are explained to the student, and, if possible, he is told whom to contact at each institution. This is a kind of counseling usually done by a school counselor in larger communities.

For the students who do not appear qualified for college or are not interested in more formal education, emphasis is placed on information related to securing full-time permanent employment. Basic information about various trades and occupations is given. Location of employment opportunities, general hiring requirements, ways and means of securing training or experience, trade school locations, and information on MDTA and ARA training are given in detail.

An example of the additional service rendered to rural youth is that given to a red headed, freckle-faced, 17-year-old senior, whom we shall call Bill. He was tested and counseled by the Employment Service in a small rural school in Randolph County, Ark., with 12 other members of his class. Bill's test results, in learning ability, placed him in the 98th percentile of the general working population. Some of his other scores were even higher.

During the interview it was learned that Bill had previously participated in a national high school achievement test administered in his school, and that he had been made eligible for a 2-semester scholarship at a nearby

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James Sellers is Rural Area Representative, Smaller Communities Program, Arkansas Employment Security Division.

Parents and children take the GATB tests in a rural church house.

State college. However, Bill had no plans to take advantage of his scholarship. In fact, he was planning to go to the west coast after graduation to work in the fruit harvest. He planned to return home during the off-season and work with his father cutting timber for local sawmills.

Continued interviewing revealed that Bill actually was interested in engineering, but did not believe that he would be able to attend college because of the cost. As the counselor gained Bill's confidence, he found that Bill wanted to go to college but that he had not discussed college with his parents because of the expense. Bill also admitted that he had no idea of what a college education would cost, but he knew it was a "tremendous amount of money."

The counselor contacted the school principal and learned that Bill was a straight "A" student, but the faculty was convinced that he would not go to college because of his background.

Bill's parents were uneducated and lived in a remote rural community, 20 miles north of the school. Since the Smaller Communities crew was scheduled to operate in that community 2 days hence, the counselor asked Bill if he would object to a conference between the counselor and his parents regarding his future. Bill agreed to encourage his parents to come to the temporary office in the community for a conference.

Two days later, Bill's parents came to the temporary office to participate in the Smaller Communities program. They were middle-aged migratory harvest workers. The father was functionally illiterate; the mother could read and write well enough to complete an application. The counselor who had interviewed Bill interviewed each separately and found that Bill had encouraged them to come in to register in the Smaller Communities program but had not told them of his discussion with the counselor.

After the application interview, the counselor asked the parents to join him in a private discussion concerning their son.

The counselor explained the GATB, and told them about his interview with Bill. He also informed them of the 2-semester scholarship for which Bill was eligible. Both parents said that they did not know anything about college but would like to know. They did not know the length of a college course, what a semester is, or how long it takes to complete a college education.

The counselor then discussed general information about college training, courses offered, and cost in both State-supported and private schools. The parents were surprised to learn that the total cost per year was only a fraction of what they imagined it to be and that their son might be eligible for a scholarship or a loan. Their interest increased when they were told that it was possible for a student to secure a part-time job and actually pay a major portion of his college expenses.

As the parents became aware of all these facts they began to get excited at the prospect of their son's attending college. They stated that they had discussed the possibility between themselves, but had given up hope because they did not think it financially feasible. They did not know where to go or whom to contact to get information.

They asked the counselor to make preliminary contacts at the nearby colleges to determine the possibilities of Bill's getting additional help. The two local colleges expressed interest and willingness to help him, and Bill and his parents were put in touch with the Dean at each school. It has not yet been determined that Bill will enter and complete college, but at least he will have a chance.

Although such services do not always reap immediate benefits, the long-term gain in status and goodwill can be immeasurable, both to the individuals concerned and to our country as a whole.

The needs of some areas and students are more evident than others, but all will remain until someone works with the rural youth of our country to inform and enlighten both the young people and their parents.

Career Day in the Institution

(*Continued from page 16*)

talks, psycho-drama, success stories, and testimonials of all types are highly effective. Practical tips must be clearly explained by participants. Factual information must be given about jobs that would likely be available immeditely to the just-released youth—actual money that might be earned and deductions from wages, overtime, and seasonal layoffs. Much of this information may come as a revelation to these youthful offenders, who truly live in another world, but it can provide valuable conditioning for the day when they can earn their way outside.

It was a revelation to the promising young bricklayer who couldn't see the use of schooling for his future, until it was suggested that if he were good enough he might become foreman. He admitted this prospect sounded good, but he was stopped short at the reminder that the foreman would have to make out payrolls, figure tax deductions, read blueprints. He was further stunned at the suggestion that some day a bricklaying machine might take over and make it necessary for him to learn something new which in all probability would demand a high school education. As the workshop ended, the light of conversion shone on his face, and he was heard telling a buddy, what he had figured out from the day, that the fellows there had better wake up and get all they could in the way of schooling while at Lorton.

Helping the Troubled Young Jobseeker

CAROLYN P. GREEN

The New York State ES and the Vocational Advisory Service operate a joint Consultation Service that provides counseling and placement services to metropolitan area youth who need help in making vocational decisions, choosing careers, planning for further education, and getting or changing jobs.

The New York State Employment Service cooperates with many agencies, governmental and private, in the field of job counseling and placement of youth. A most productive relationship, and probably the oldest, is the one with the Vocational Advisory Service (VAS), a private, nonprofit organization which has a continuing history of pioneer studies and programs. This long-standing working association has been concerned with many facets of youth employment problems.

The Vocational Advisory Service started as a pilot project to demonstrate the need for effective vocational guidance and placement of young people. Three early organizations, engaged in placement of unskilled beginners, scholarship aid, and guidance, found they were working on different aspects of the same problem. In 1920, their respective boards merged to form the Vocational Service for Juniors, now known as the Vocational Advisory Service.

Two of the early pilot projects undertaken by this voluntary agency have become permanent and integral parts of public establishments, thus extending benefits to young people far beyond the numbers that could be reached by any single philanthropically supported organization.

School Counseling.—A school counseling demonstration program was carried on by VAS with eight counselors working in junior high schools until 1926, when the New York City Board of Education was able to get an item for salaries for these counselors in its school budget. The VAS has maintained a close working relationship with the public schools to this day.

Youth Employment.—An employment demonstration program for boys and girls between 14 (then the school-leaving age) and 18 resulted, in 1929, in the creation of the Junior Placement Division within the New York State Employment Service. The relationship between the two agencies, one private and one public, has continued and grown. A result of this close cooperative association has been the Consultation Service.

Consultation Service.—In 1934, in the midst of the depression, the two agencies recognized that, while many young people needed more extensive counseling than Employment Service counselors could give, it was important that such counseling be carried on in close association with the Employment Service. To meet this need, the VAS and the NYSES established the Consultation Service as a joint demonstration program. Although it started as an experiment, the Consultation Service has long since become an integral and valuable part of the Employment Service.

The NYSES furnishes overhead and supplies. It also provides six counselors and four stenographers. The VAS, in turn, provides psychological services, training, supervisory and consulting staff, as well as most of the counseling and clerical personnel.

Many Types of Youth Served

The Consultation Service accepts young men and women from the metropolitan New York area, between the ages of 16 and 25 years, who need help in making vocational decisions, planning further education, choosing a career, or changing a job. Young

A New York State Employment Service counselor (right) discusses a difficult case with VAS staff—Dr. Rudolph Schindler, supervisor of Professional Services (left), and John Roberts, vocational counselor.

Carolyn P. Green is State Consultant for Counseling and Youth Placement, New York State Employment Service.

people are referred to the Consultation Service by NYSES, social agencies, schools, courts, parents, friends, former clients, and others. Some of the referrals are honor students; some high school dropouts. They come from every economic level and from every part of New York City and the suburbs. NYSES referrals are given priority in service.

VAS helps many young people who have not come to them through the Employment Service. However, when these boys and girls are ready to seek employment, VAS refers them to NYSES for placement in line with their vocational objective.

The VAS counselors report that more and more of their young people, without preparation or motivation, but under pressure from their families and the world around them, expect to go to college. These youngsters are bound to meet frustration and failure unless they can be motivated from within themselves and become better equipped for higher education.

Also, many more young people going to the Consultation Service have had difficulty with the law, are on the fringe of delinquency, or are apathetic, withdrawn, or drifting. It is necessary to get these youths interested in seeking employment or training of any kind. Sometimes it takes months to get to the root of their problems and to bring them to the point where they are ready to proceed toward a vocational goal.

A Coordinated Approach

After filling out an application form and an interest inventory, each young person referred to the Consultation Service is interviewed by an intake counselor. An appointment is then made with the vocational counselor who will continue with the applicant until he has started on his vocational goal, or even beyond if he continues to need supportive help.

However, before the youth sees his counselor, considerable information is obtained about him. His school record is sent for; a social service clearance is made; and, if the family is known to any social agency, reports are acquired. Medical reports, if needed, are also obtained.

Before the first interview, the vocational counselor has had a chance to go over all this information and the intake interviewer's notes, together with a statement of the applicant's problem as seen by the referring person. The initial counseling interview is followed by a battery of psychological tests, individual and group. If the youth has been tested and referred by NYSES, the results of his GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY are sent to the VAS counselor. However, VAS gives additional tests. After the psychologist has prepared the test profile and a detailed individualized report, a case conference is arranged at which the counselor, a staff consultant, and the referring person (often the NYSES counselor) discuss the young person's problems and possible solutions.

Following this conference, the counselor helps the young client find answers for himself—answers about a job or educational and vocational training which will best satisfy his needs. This process may take weeks or even months. The counselor is concerned with both the initial step and the long-range goals, and sometimes follows up with a client for years. It is often a slow and painstaking process to build a relationship with a young person who is insecure, suspicious, apathetic, or withdrawn. But at least the young people who go to the Consultation Service have recognized that they have a problem and are trying to do something about it.

In 1962, some 2,140 young New Yorkers were helped in finding a vocational direction by the Consultation Service. This is a small percentage of the total number of young people interviewed by NYSES counselors, but it is indeed helpful to the Employment Service to be able to refer some of the boys and girls with difficult counseling problems requiring long and careful followup to an agency such as the Consultation Service.

Information and Training Services

VAS carries on many other activities besides its Consultation Service. It publishes a weekly INFORMATION BULLETIN and the directory, WHERE TO FIND VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN NEW YORK CITY — both valuable tools for NYSES counselors. It has a program for training in the counseling field and has undertaken a number of research projects.

In 1962, at the request of the New York City Youth Board and under the sponsorship of the New York State Division for Youth, VAS launched a project for 16- and 17-year-olds who had dropped out of school. This is another example of how troubled young people, out of school and out of work, are being helped, with VAS providing counseling and work training, and the NYSES giving job placement help.

The Consultation Service is perhaps the most enduring program of VAS and certainly the one most directly connected with NYSES. It clearly illustrates the mutual helpfulness of this type of cooperation.

ES Placement Service Role

The U.S. Employment Service has been frequently criticized for playing a too small role in the labor market and has been recently attacked by the private, fee-charging employment agencies for an alleged attempt to monopolize placement. As the "front line" of public attempts to match men and jobs, the interest in public employment service operation is justified but the criticisms are probably not.

The placement role of the employment service is a relatively small but key one. An estimated 16 percent of the hirings by employers in 1960 involved the services of one or more of the 1,900 State employment offices affiliated with USES. By way of contrast, it is estimated that 36 percent of placements came about by direct contact between employer and job applicant, 23 percent through relatives and friends, and 11 percent through newspaper ads. Private employment agencies officiated at only 4 percent of such man-job marriages. . . . Miscellaneous means accounted for the remaining 10 percent. The recruitment and job search process will always remain predominantly private and informal.

—From a report of the Senate Subcommittee on Employment and Manpower.

Youths receive tutoring at the Motivation Center of the Youth Opportunities Center.

San Francisco Experiment in Juvenile Delinquency Prevention

ANNE VALDEZ

New horizons and hope are opening to youth through educational upgrading and vocational training at a San Francisco Youth Opportunities Center concerned with preventing juvenile delinquency and helping those in trouble.

He was 18 years old—a 10th grade dropout who had spent 17 months in youth authority institutions. We'll call him Kenneth. He wanted to get a high school diploma, but as one of 11 children, he felt he would have to get an unskilled job and stay there for the rest of his life. Today all that is changed, and he is enrolled in a Youth Opportunities Center upgrading MDTA class in the occupation of his choice. His time in class counts toward his high school diploma, and an employer is waiting for him to finish his course.

Remedial classes in reading and communications at Hunters Point Boys Club.

For Kenneth and hundreds of other youths, the Youth Opportunities Center in the Hunters Point-Bayview District in San Francisco means new hope. In December 1963, the Center opened its doors to serve the young people of this neighborhood of high youth unemployment. The 3-year action-research project was created as a closely coordinated interagency effort to upgrade and place unemployed youth.

The project was conceived by the San Francisco Committee on Youth, a quasi-official, citywide public committee appointed by the United Community Fund. Support for the Youth Opportunities Center comes from the Ford Foundation; Office of Manpower, Automation and Training of the U.S. Department of Labor; and the President's Committee on Delinquency and Youth Crime. The President's Committee grant is solely for research and evaluation; the other grants are for action. Findings will be used to develop plans for a more comprehensive program to include other areas of the city.

One-third of San Francisco's Negro population lives in the Hunters Point area; 13,000 of the district's residents are in public housing. By March 1964, 600 youths, aged 15 to 21, had enrolled at the Center, and it is expected that 1,500 young persons will be assisted during the 3-year period. Staffing the Center under unified administration are workers assigned by participating agencies, along with a central administrative staff of Director, Associate Director, Research Director, psychologists, and other assistants. The project is endorsed by the Bayview-Hunters Point Citizens Committee, an alert, articulate grassroots group which helps to interpret the community to the Center and the Center to the community. The Citizens Committee participates in motivational and tutorial activities.

Staff outstationed to the Center are from the Boys Club, Police Department, Public Welfare, San Francisco public schools, Youth for Service (a group-work agency for hard-to-reach boys), and the Youth and Student Office of the California State Employment Service. Housed together, members of central staff and participating agencies can confer easily and frequently about groups of youths or individuals. Case conferences are informal and productive.

Each individual and agency has a key role at the Center. Since there is emphasis on training and job placement, the schools and Employment Service are represented in greatest numbers. Delegated to the 19 workers from the Employment Service are the functions of registration, employment testing and counseling, MDTA proposals in demand occupations, selection and continuous counseling of MDTA students, job development in cooperation with the Director, referral to other needed services, and stopgap and permanent job placement. The school system plans and provides curricula, educational counselors, teachers, principals, and space for MDTA classes and other types of upgrading courses. An occupational analyst from the Employment Service is assigned to the Center.

MDTA projects currently approved are for telephone frameman, service station attendant, insurance

Mrs. Anne Valdez is Manager, Youth and Student Office, San Francisco local office, California State Employment Service.

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James Bradley, Employment Service Counselor, helps a youth understand test results.

rate clerk, stenographer, clerk typist, duplicating machine operator, office boy, beauty operator, and gardener-groundsman. To be approved are automotive mechanic pre-apprentice training, elevator operator repairman, statistical machine repairman, and other semiskilled jobs. In the first 4 months, 125 youths were placed in temporary and permanent jobs, 246 in tutorial programs, and 100 in MDTA classes.

Along with its concern for juvenile delinquency *prevention*, the Center helps youths who are in trouble because of their long-standing frustration and discouragement. Hilda was such a youth. Upon graduating from a youth authority school, she came to the Center to get "any kind of job." Testing and counseling helped Hilda recognize her high potential for office work. Although interested in this work, she had been too self-effacing to seek white-collar work. Now enrolled in the YOC-MDTA course for general clerk, she is a top student and an inspiration to the other enrollees.

Ron is another example. A young man of 20, he had received mechanical training in a youth authority school but could not find work in this field. After helping him to use a more positive approach to employers, the employment counselor developed a job for him in the mechanical trades. Both Ron and his employer are pleased with his progress.

It would be unsophisticated to assume that there is not a great deal yet to be done. But the atmosphere at the Youth Opportunities Center is one that has revealed new horizons to the youth, their parents, and the staff.

Alberta Lloyd, testing technician, watches a young man take a finger dexterity test.

"Put Your Best Foot Forward"

(*Continued from page 10*)

conducted by an employer tended to depend to a large degree on his ability as a speaker and his proficiency in establishing "rapport." However, as we gained experience, we were able to make suggestions to the employer on the approach to be taken and the techniques to be used.

Another technique we found effective is to present a skit containing the message we wish to convey. This technique required preparation of a script which had to be carefully tailored, taking into consideration such factors as the time element, sensitivities of racial groups, and the culturally and economically deprived family background of many of the youngsters.

A combination of role-playing and a brief lecture seemed to be the most effective technique for getting our message across to the young jobseekers.

Personnel men attending the sessions have often interviewed and hired young applicants on the spot. One employer, after bluntly stating before the clinic that it was his company's policy to hire only workers over 23 years of age, later called back to say that he had employed one of the boys from the clinic. Moreover, he had convinced his supervisors that youngsters were easier to work with than those in the 22 to 26 age bracket.

At the close of each clinic, each participant is given a "Pocket Résumé," a form devised by the Employment Service to help the youngster organize his training and experience in an orderly, usable fashion. This résumé is designed to be presented to employers, so that they can see at a glance what the young applicant has to offer. It also contains a list of "job hunting tips," to serve as a constant reminder of the importance of proper attitude and appearance.

Effectiveness of Clinic

Although it would certainly be desirable to obtain information on the effectiveness of job clinics, we do not attempt to do so because of limited staff and the difficulty of establishing objective criteria. However, we have gained a certain amount of subjective data, based on the opinions of our interviewers, statements made by visiting employers who conducted some of the clinics, and opinions voiced by the participants.

Key observations: Many applicants, who had been notably defective in grooming when attending the clinic, subsequently returned to the office greatly improved in appearance. The joint demonstration of concern for their job problem by a State agency and an employer seemed to have a decidedly positive effect on the attitudes of some applicants. Employers commented on "better type referrals" from among those applicants who had profited from the clinic.

One veteran interviewer who greeted the job clinic proposal with the disparaging statement: "Just another sidetrack from our placement function," is now one of the most capable in "reaching" job clinic audiences with his refreshingly positive advice on "putting your best foot forward."

Summer Jobs for Johnny and Jane

JOHN D. McCORMICK
J. ARTHUR BIANCHI

Back when Old King Coal dominated the industry of Southeast Kansas and railroad employment was booming, a job wasn't hard to come by.

Today the situation is different—quite different.

Strip mining pits that formerly yielded their riches to the crunching bite of giant steam shovels are now almost silent, filled with pools of water and flanked by great mounds of barren earth.

As the coal empire crumbled, lead and zinc deposits played out, and low-maintenance diesel locomotives cut heavily into railroad jobs, the local economy suffered a serious setback from which it is only now beginning to recover. Unemployment in the area is still high—"substantial and persistent" in the official terminology.

This designation has stimulated area residents to action. Aggressive industrial promotion programs have attracted growing numbers of small manufacturing firms, an infant electronics industry is expanding rapidly, and specialty agricultural crops are giving the economy a promising outlook.

While still wrestling with unemployment problems of some magnitude, the community of Pittsburg, Kans. (19,000 population) last summer took on a new challenge. It went all out to help youngsters under 18 years of age find summer jobs.

Teamwork was the keynote of the program from the outset.

In the fall of 1962, the Pittsburg local office manager and the director of secondary education in the public schools came to a conclusion. Recalling the 1962 summer job effort which, without community support had registered 112 students at the local office but placed scarcely a dozen of them, they decided the time for concerted action had arrived.

Out of a meeting of high school principals and counselors set up to study the problem came a decision by school officials to make a job survey of some 600 area students, grades 10 through 12, in the four high schools of Pittsburg and neighboring Frontenac. Early in February, students were questioned about previous employment, plans for summer jobs, programs in which they would accept training, kinds of jobs wanted, and minimum wages. Over half the students said they would like summer jobs in a wide range of occupations from service station attendants to babysitters.

The planning group envisioned an education program conducted by the schools for their students including special training classes for service station attendants, babysitters, waitresses, and other suitable occupations. Industry representatives would be invited to speak to students to explain what is expected on the job; the Employment Service would brief them on techniques of obtaining employment and regulations on child labor and would register, refer, and place them. Civil groups would be asked to finance advertising, help solicit job openings, and channel the young people to the Employment Service.

To develop community support, the ES manager and school director then undertook to sell the program to local civic and service clubs. An innovation in their sales approach was that a number of these young workers, unlike those in previous years, would be "trained." Further meetings resulted in the formation of a Youth Employment Council (YEC) in Pittsburg.

YEC drew up a simple set of by-laws and set up a timetable for the period April 22–May 10 in which youths would enroll for training and

John D. McCormick is Field Supervisor and J. Arthur Bianchi is Manager of the Pittsburg local office, Kansas Employment Security Division.

These three young people found summer jobs because of training received through the Youth Employment Council.

Service station attendant.

Child monitor.

Yardman.

be registered for jobs. A promotional letter would be issued to business and industry, news media announcements made, notices placed in church bulletins, newspaper advertising, radio and TV coverage.

In April, a meeting was arranged with all petroleum distributors in the city to explore possibilities of offering a service station attendant course for some 87 students who had indicated a preference for this kind of work. Although the meeting offered little promise of jobs, businessmen had no objection to carrying out the training. One local service station owner agreed to help a vocational education teacher instruct the class. Courses for yardmen and babysitters were also arranged as planned.

Students Are Registered

During the week of April 29–May 3, Employment Service interviewers visited all participating schools and registered students who were seeking summer jobs. In a short time, notices appeared on school bulletin boards announcing the start of training classes 3 nights a week from 7:30 to 9.

Fifteen students enrolled in the babysitting course. The instructor gave the group a list of "Pointers for Sitters," which took into consideration safety, care, and entertainment of children. She also lectured on problems that might arise and what a sitter should do. Students practired on a doll, learning how to dress and feed infants. They also worked out an appropriate range of pay for babysitters, and attempted to enhance the status of the job by adopting the title "child monitoring."

Fourteen students enrolled in the service station attendant class. A local service station owner joined the vocational education instructor in teaching the class. Classroom instruction was given on simple maintenance operations, checking of auto trouble spots, basic service operations, making out credit cards, and general sales procedures.

The station owner invited the classmembers to bring in their fathers' cars to wash, grease, and wax at no charge under his personal supervision. This gave the boys some actual experience in a real station where they were also instructed in the use of station equipment.

The young people who signed up for training as yardmen got special instruction from the superintendent of buildings and grounds at Kansas State College. He explained the use of sprays, fertilizers, power mowers, and other tools, and showed the youngsters how to save gas with a power mower, how to trim shrubs, and other yard-care techniques.

The week of May 5 to 10 was scheduled for an all-out effort. Training sessions were completed, the mayor issued a proclamation recognizing "Operation—Youth Employment," a news story promoting the campaign appeared in the PITTSBURG HEADLIGHT, flyers were included in church bulletins, and council members were asked to announce the program at club meetings and in bulletins published by their organizations.

A series of articles written by the KSES public relations director on the role of the Employment Service in summer jobs for youth, part-time jobs suitable for youth, and the legal aspects of youth employment was carried by the Pittsburg press for 3 consecutive weeks.

On May 16, the YEC executive committee met again in the conference room of the KSES building. The ES Manager reported that 176 students were registered for summer jobs. The training supervisors said all hands had been "graduated" with certificates of completion, which became part of their files when they registered for work.

The students spearheaded a campaign of their own. Pittcraft, Inc., a printing specialty firm, donated 3,000 promotional pamphlets done by a printing class in one of the schools, and "threw in" the trainee certificates and some handbills for the schools.

The youngsters placarded store windows with project posters, promoted interest in the program in the city's four high schools, mimeographed additional "Put Youth on a Job" handbills listing types of work for which they were fitted. These were stuffed in grocery bags at checkout counters in stores all over Pittsburg and Frontenac the weekend of June 3. Civic organizations donated a classified ad that appeared daily in the PITTSBURG HEADLIGHT throughout the program.

Where to Find the Openings

The publicity campaign had created lively public interest in YEC activities. Now remained the crucial task of finding jobs for the 176 registrants plus others who might sign up later for jobs. Early results were slow. Only seven were placed the first week. As the program gained momentum, however, 12 found jobs the following week, but an additional 74 had registered since the program's start, swelling the total seeking work to 250. Further newspaper appeals were made and numerous radio spot announcements featured different YEC committee members in appeals to employers for jobs.

By early August, 91 students had been placed in 19 different kinds of jobs; most were working as yardmen, laborers, child monitors, farmhands, and waitresses. At month's end, when the program closed for school, 133 had been placed, or more than 53 percent of those registered.

With 33 placed as yardmen and eight as babysitters, not counting those who found work on their own, the committee has concluded the training program is an important part of the effort and that it might be extended to include other jobs. Since many service station jobs are manned by college students from Kansas State College there, few were left for the younger group. Nevertheless, training helped the 15 who found work as farmhands.

The KSES interviewer who placed many of the child monitors reported that mothers typically asked: "Do you have someone like you sent to so-and-so who has had the child-care training?"

The ES manager is as enthusiastic about the program as the other par-

(*Continued on page 36*)

The Mature Dropout's View of Future Schooling

DOROTHY NEWTON

Lack of education and training limit job opportunities and advancement. Many mature dropouts are aware of their problem, but motivation and personal resources are key factors in overcoming limitations.

One characteristic frequently displayed by dropouts who have been out of school a considerable length of time is awareness of their employment problem—limited job opportunities as well as limited advancement possibilities even if employment is obtained. Such persons invariably would like to overcome these limitations. Prior to counseling, they usually have considered some of the following alternatives.

Should I Return to Day School?

Some have given serious consideration to return to day school. Most frequently, this possibility is forfeited for one of several reasons. Usually, these individuals fear feeling "out of place" because of age. The fortunate few who obtained employment after leaving school view return to regular school with particular distaste. After some financial independence, they are reluctant to relinquish earning oportunities, however temporary such opportunities may be. For many, return to regular school is not feasible due to debts and responsibilities incurred after departure from school—responsibilities ranging from car payments to support of dependents. Frequently, the mature dropout views return to regular school as an undesirable alternative because of inability to see a relationship between school curricula and jobs he would like to hold. If returning to school, most would prefer a technical school. However, admission to a public technical school is difficult to gain and few have the finances necessary for a private technical school.

The second alternative considered is night school. Again, many problems hinder such a plan. First is that of earning money for carfare, tuition, and incidentals. Once an earning opportunity is obtained, no matter how sincere intentions of attending school may have been, the plan frequently fails to materialize. When family responsibilities exist, it is often impossible to save money from the usually low wages. If responsibilities are absent, inexperience in handling money, lack of discipline, and inability to sacrifice immediate needs for long-term goals often obstruct accomplishment of the plan.

Perhaps in Military Service

A third alternative that dropouts consider is completing their education and acquiring specialized training while in military service. Again, problems are numerous. Limited basic skills prevent many youths from passing qualifying tests. Many who are accepted do not last beyond basic training because of emotional instability, lack of adaptability to discipline, and other causes. Those who remain often find the skill they acquire inapplicable in civilian life. If they pass the equivalence test, employment opportunities are better, but some employers will not accept this in lieu of a high school education.

A fourth alternative, recently opened to St. Louis youth, is a special MDT project which eliminates some

(*Continued on page 44*)

Three of the occupations for which dropouts in St. Louis are being trained. Top, machine shop work; center, electronics; bottom, welding.

Dorothy Newton is Counselor, Youth Services Division, Missouri State Employment Service.

AUTOMATION

Youth Employment and Technological Change

Few developments in the manpower field over the past decade have generated as much discussion or concern as the effects of automation and technological change on employment and unemployment. Most of this concern has been focused on the more dramatic aspects of the impact of automation—those associated with the shutdown of older plant facilities and the layoffs of large groups of workers. Far less attention has been paid to the effects of technological change on employment opportunities for youth, perhaps because such effects often are not readily visible or measurable. Yet, in the long-run, these may be of equal—if not greater—significance than the more widely publicized layoff situations.

The problems of youth employment in relation to automation were emphasized in developing the USES-State employment service demonstration program 2 years ago. While the primary objective was to help displaced workers find new jobs, the program combined action with research to acquire better understanding of the problems and better tools to ease the impact of automation on various worker groups—including young people entering or just about to enter the labor market.

Some preliminary findings of demonstration projects now becoming available have significant implications for youth employment prospects. In some cases, automation did not necessarily result in layoffs at many of the firms studied—some firms even increased payrolls. In many firms, the number of entry or replacement jobs traditionally filled by high school graduates or other young workers was reduced. Labeled "silent firings," these lowered requirements represent a growing labor market adjustment problem.

David Thompson, U.S. Employment Service.

Automation Limiting Jobs for Youth

The effects of technological change on youth employment opportunities are well illustrated in a study, by the Wisconsin State Employment Service, of a computer installation by a Milwaukee insurance company. The company—one of the largest in the State—began converting in 1961, and its computer system was installed and operating by 1962. Data processing for several company divisions was reorganized, new customer services added, and new systems and methods installed.

The computer system enabled the firm to improve its customer services and reduce its staff concurrently. Since high attrition rates continued for the young women who made up the majority of the clerical staff, it was possible to reduce the firm's work force rapidly, simply by failing to hire replacements. Thus, although no layoffs occurred, large reductions in staff took place within a short time, and the number of jobs—particularly entry clerical jobs—in the local area decreased significantly and permanently.

The effects on recruiting were more dramatic. Prior to the computer installation, the firm's personnel department visited most of the large high schools in Wisconsin to interview each year's girl graduates. After the new system was put in operation, visits were sharply curtailed, and those now made are largely for public relations purposes rather than recruitment. Precomputer large-scale hiring is now gone and with it a major source of entry jobs for girls throughout the State.

In a demonstration project at a new meatpacking plant, modern machinery easily increased production despite some layoffs. Now, instead of providing job opportunities for young people—especially at the unskilled and entry level—a recall list will satisfy the employer's needs for some time to come. In addition, many unskilled workers who were laid off now compete with youth for available entry jobs.

Thus, not only are there fewer new jobs for youth, but young entrants find increased job competition from the laid off applicants. These applicants have employment records and, in some cases, family responsibilities which may, justifiably make employers prefer to hire them, rather than the young people.

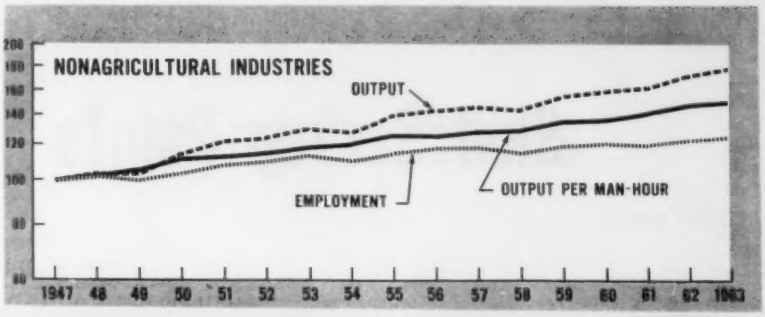
Summer Job Opportunities Dwindle

In another study, a cereal manufacturer had been a source of summer jobs for local high school and college youths. After plant conversion to new processes, the number of temporary positions and workers decreased, and the recall of "permanent" employees now fills all the summer jobs available.

Reduced job opportunities for youth are also illustrated by a USES-State employment service project with a food processor in another State who planned an expansion in production facilities. After the expansion, not only did the expected orders for new jobs fail to come, but also the firm laid off some workers after the new installation was operating smoothly. None of the hoped-for jobs for youth materialized.

In the Northwest, a large copper company is putting in an automated copper concentrator which may eliminate about 700 jobs in a nearby area. Most of those released will be carried on a recall list for at least 3 years. Based on past experience, the roster probably will not be exhausted for at least 2 years during which this firm will have no openings for local high school graduates.

In another area, a demonstration project studied the effect on employment of circular wards constructed in a hospital addition. With the new, more efficient layout, supervisory and professional staff were able to get more done. While no workers were laid off, the shortage of nurses was eased. In addition, because of improved working conditions, fewer nurse aides and orderlies were required per bed in the new-style wards. Many of the nurse aides and orderlies normally hired by the hospital are in the younger age group. Although the demand for some occupations changed only slightly in this case, in the aggregate such changes affect the local labor market.



Fewer Entry Jobs—More Entrants

The above cases illustrate some major effects of automation and technological change on youth employment opportunities. First, the new jobs which are normally expected as a result of plant expansions and increases in production do not always develop. Second, other traditional sources of entry jobs are tending to decline or disappear in some areas at a time when entry applicants are increasing as a result of the postwar population boom. Third, workers without transferable skills who are being laid off in many areas as a result of automation and technological change compete with youth for the few entry jobs available.

At present we do not yet know to what extent automation has directly contributed to a doubling of the unemployment rate among workers under 20, from about 7 percent to over 15 percent over the past decade. However, as more youth continue to enter the labor market, and as sources of entry jobs shift or diminish, the ability of the Employment Service to remain alert and adjust to these changes will become increasingly important if it is to continue to provide meaningful services to youth.

—David Thompson, *U.S. Employment Service.*

Technological Definitions

The tendency to use such terms as technological change, mechanization, automation, cybernation, and productivity sometimes synonymously and at others with divergent meanings has resulted in much unnecessary confusion. . . .

"Technology" refers to those techniques by which available economic resources are transformed into goods and services needed to fulfill human wants. Thus, "technological change" encompasses not only the invention of new types of laborsaving machinery but also simple changes in materials handling and the flow of work, changes in the resource mix used in production, the development of new and substitute products and various managerial efficiencies.

"Mechanization" can be correctly applied only to a specific kind of change in technique: the application of machinery to tasks formerly performed by human or animal labor. "Automation" refers to the replacement of the human operator by automatic controls. "Cybernation" applies the computer as a decision-making devise to control the automatic process. "Productivity" . . . is the statistical yardstick by which most but not all of the impact of technological change on employment is measured.

—From a report by the Senate Subcommittee on Employment and Manpower.

Skill Survey Points

A joint ES-Vocational Educa[tion st]udy of Georgia's current use of and future de[mand] for manpower, triggering stepped-[up voc]ational training.

Georgia is on the threshold of a major [expansion] and training. There have been recent an[nual] allocated to the Board of Regents for coll[ege] and $55 million for secondary educatio[n] applied, these funds can result in a treme[ndous] Georgia General Assembly, in its regular [session] lation and supporting tax measures, for [the] system of education.

Federal legislation has given much im[petus] through the National Defense Educatio[n] ment and Training Act, short courses fo[r] Area Redevelopment Act and the Voc[ational] 1963. Other far-reaching legislative m[easures]

In Georgia this forward movement w[as] ernor's Conference on Education in 195[9] Employment Security Agency helped to p[rovide] cation Committee report. At about the same time the Employment Se[curity] WORKERS IN MANUFACTURING. This study was used effectively by the Vocat[ional Educa]tion in planning and obtaining financing for a statewide system of area voc[ational] over the State to make such training available to all who need it and to inc[rease] erative effort was to mark the beginning of a close working relationship b[etween] Education Division.

To achieve success in a major program of expanded vocational-techn[ical] employment and future requirements in key occupations and the new occu[pations] and changing technology. In 1962, the Georgia agency embarked on a resea[rch] professor, School of Industrial Management, Georgia Institute of Technol[ogy] sponsored by the leading industrial development and government organizati[ons].

The GEORGIA SKILL STUDY was published in August 1963 in three versi[ons] for more general use; and a liberally illustrated brochure entitled *The Chall[enge]*

The principal objective of the study was to determine current use a[nd] clerical types of workers in Georgia's economy, with special emphasis on th[e] A second objective was to measure the adequacy of current training progr[ams] tional institutions, and to estimate the minimum training needs for the State[s] major objective, and one of critical importance in preparing to meet Georg[ia's] technological trends which are now affecting Georgia industry, the resultan[t] training needed for technical jobs anticipated in the future. Finally, the p[roject]

Maria Mallet is Assistant Chief, Research and Analy[sis]

udy draws a blueprint of mand for the State's skilled cational training programs.

Training Directions

MARIA MALLET

r breakthrough in education nnouncements of $71 million llege and university additions on improvements. Properly endous forward thrust. The r 1964 session, enacted legis- r a greatly improved public

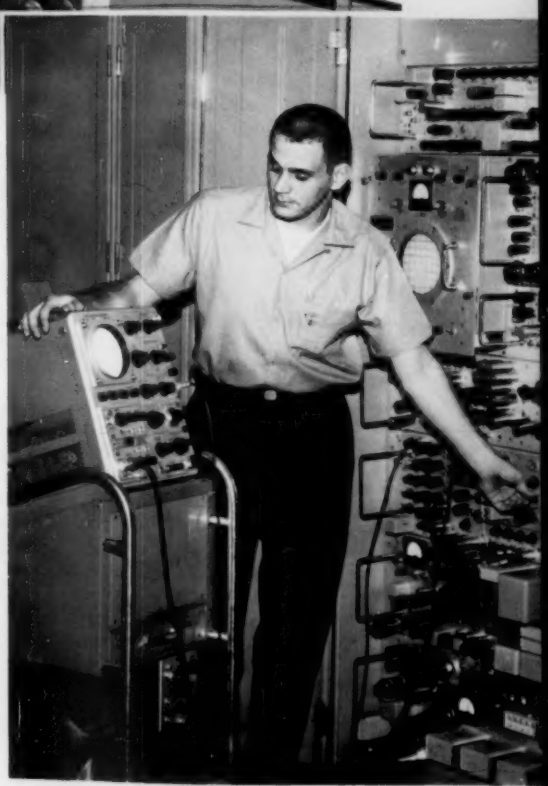
npetus to manpower training on Act, Manpower Develop- or upgrading skills under the cational Educational Act of measures are pending.

was launched with the Gov- 58. A representative of the prepare the Vocational Edu- ecurity Agency published its first skill survey—ATLANTA SKILLED ational Education Division of the Georgia Department of Educa- cational-technical schools. These are to be located strategically ncrease the State's skilled and technical work force. This coop- between the Employment Security Agency and the Vocational

nical education, much information was needed about current upations emerging with diversification of industry, automation, earch study to develop such information with Dr. John L. Fulmer, logy, under contract as project director. This undertaking was ions in the State.

ions: *Complete Edition,* the full research study; *Summary Report, lenge.*

nd future demand for the most important technical, skilled, and he metropolitan areas. Data were collected on 155 occupations. rams for these workers in company programs and in public educa- te as a whole and for the different metropolitan areas. A third gia's future needs for skilled workers, was the determination of the nt demands for new types of technicians, and the nature of the plan of the study included formation of policy recommendations



ysis, Georgia Employment Security Agency.

which would facilitate planning to meet the State's future demands for technical, skilled, and clerical workers.

Basic data for the report were obtained by a sample survey, employing mail questionnaires, of a cross section of firms in Georgia and in two counties of the adjoining States which are part of the metropolitan areas of Augusta and Columbus. The sampling was based on stratification of the selected universe by area, industry, and size of firm, with variable sampling ratios. The sample data obtained were inflated to universe estimates by programmed equations on electronic equipment at Georgia Tech.

Part of the study involved a special mail survey of the self-employed and of small companies of three or fewer workers to determine their needs for skilled and technical types of workers. The results were analyzed according to the following categories: Manufacturing, repair work, general business services, and trade and services. Significantly, the results showed that such firms have a higher ratio of skilled and technical workers than large firms.

A very important phase of the study involved personal interviews with the top management and technical personnel in 80 large companies, also stratified by industry and location. In all, over 300 persons in these companies were contacted by experts in interview analysis. The purpose of this part of the study was to summarize the thinking of top company management and engineers on technological trends dominating Georgia industry now and in the near future. Another objective was to determine the impact of these technological changes on company needs for new types of technicians as well as the training requirements for these new technical jobs.

The report includes a summary of the technological trends by major industry. These analyses led to identification of 134 new plant job titles which were summarized into 31 technician classes, 27 of which proved to be entirely new to the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES.

It was estimated that in Georgia over 65,500 job openings will occur by 1967 in the 155 basic occupations included in the study. This represents over 13,000 job openings annually. About 80 percent of these openings will be the result of new jobs arising from growth of the State's economy. The other 20 percent of openings will be for replacement needs for currently employed skilled workers. In addition, changing technology will develop the need for 31 new technician types, representing an estimated 5-year growth in demand for an additional 7,500 technicians, or an annual rate of 1,550.

It was concluded that economic growth is becoming increasingly dependent on an adequate supply of trained workers because of the speed and complexity of technological change. If Georgia is to keep pace in the parade of satisfactory economic growth, it must prepare to have these workers ready when needed by industry. Adequate financial support for this essential program must be provided if the State is to progress. It is equally important to provide for continuous upgrading of workers to keep abreast of changing technology.

Two State-operated schools with dormitory facilities, located in Clarkesville and Americus, were already operating with full enrollments. The expansion program has resulted in the approval of an additional 28 area schools, of which 12 are already in operation. Others are in various stages of construction or planning, with five more scheduled to open by the fall of 1964 and seven in 1965. Plans are going forward for a $6 million facility in Atlanta.

The Vocational Education Division actively participated in the skill study, particularly in the planning stages and in the selection of occupations to be included. The results are being used as a basis for determining the curricula for the vocational-technical schools.

The success attained in this program is due to the close collaboration and cooperation between the Employment Security Agency and Vocational Education staffs. This joint effort will be continued through the guidance and counseling service, testing, labor market information, and followup skill studies.

Pittsburgh Training

CLAIRE M. HAGMAIER AND

Intelligent planning, community support and action, and close cooperation between the Board of Education and the ES result in a successful training program for many untrained, unemployed young people in the Pittburgh area.

Pittsburgh's youth training program was developed under the Manpower Development and Training Act to meet the needs of the large number of young people in the area who lack marketable skills. Some are school dropouts, while others are high school graduates with little or no vocational or commercial training. Since the group to be trained is between the ages of 18 and 22, the training objective is to prepare these young people to enter jobs at the beginning level in various occupations.

To assure community support for this training project, representatives of various agencies which had voiced interest in training of unemployed youth were invited to serve on an advisory committee. The committee consists of representatives from the Chamber of Commerce; labor organizations; employer associations; Action Housing, through the Urban Renewal Citizens Committees; the YMCA; Urban League; Juvenile Probation Office; public and parochial school boards; Department of Public Assistance; Health and Welfare Association; and the Mayor's Committee on Manpower.

A first step in planning the program was to select occupations for training. This was accomplished

Claire M. Hagmaier is Public Relations Representative, and Louis A. Valicenti is Division Manager, Manpower Development and Training program, Pittsburgh District Office, Pennsylvania Bureau of Employment Security.

Youth Program

LOUIS A. VALICENTI

through meetings of the Advisory Committee, community groups, Employment Service staff, and representatives from the Pittsburgh Board of Education. The Employment Service, with its experience and knowledge of prevailing occupational needs, presented to the committee concise job descriptions of the occupations designated as acceptable for training. In making its final approval, the Advisory Committee gave considerable weight to the occupations suggested by the Employment Service and the Pittsburgh Board of Education. For each occupation, a subcommittee was set up, composed of representatives from the Pittsburgh Board of Education, employers who had workers engaged in the specific occupation, and Employment Service staff. Each subcommittee developed curricula for the specific training course involved.

When the occupations for which training was to be given had been agreed upon, the Pennsylvania Bureau of Employment Security prepared guidelines and procedures for community agencies in selecting potential applicants who were known to them, to supplement those currently registered with the local Employment Services offices. These guidelines include the proposed training occupation, number to be trained, job descriptions, performance and physical requirements, and other pertinent information to assist the civic agencies in the preliminary screening of prospective training candidates. The local offices, in turn, called in each applicant for an interview in order to determine whether he met the criteria for entrance into a training class.

All applicants selected for the youth training program were given the GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY. The test results were weighted

with the other pertinent data previously reviewed, and a final appraisal was made before the potential trainee was referred to a specific training program.

When the starting date and location of a training class were established by the Pittsburgh Board of Education, the local office directed the prospective trainees to report to the school. Prior to the opening date of classes, the ES offices provided the Board of Education with a capsule summary of each trainee's educational record, test results, and other data, such as leisure time activities, hobbies, and interests. This information was made part of the trainee's folder at the training facility. One of its uses by the school counselor and administrators is to determine the feasibility of reassigning a trainee if there is indication that his ability to grasp the training in the original training assignment is below average.

In establishing these training programs, the Pittsburgh Board of Education set up in each project basic academic instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Also when the specific occupation relates to a trade or craft, pretraining instruction is given in machining, woodworking, electricity, or mechanical drawing—the four basic vocational fields. This academic and prevocational training, known as the preclinical phase, lasts from 1 to 7 weeks, depending upon the individual's ability to learn. The trainee then enters training in the occupation to which he has been assigned. During the entire training period, the school counselors work closely with the students and instructors to determine remedial areas as needed.

While the students are in school, the community agency members of the Advisory Committee provide counseling assistance. These agency members are especially helpful because they know the students and can give direction in problems of motivation, interest, absenteeism, or home difficulties that affect the students' progress.

Only one class—nurse aide/orderly has been completed to date. Of the

(*Continued on page 33*)

Regional Training Center for Southern Ohioans

ROBERT E. CHAPMAN AND DONALD L. ROBERTSON

A training center tackles the problem of heavy unemployment in 21 southern Ohio counties, giving special attention to youth. The vocational training is supplemented by instruction on other factors pertinent to employability.

A multi-occupation training center, by far the most ambitious Manpower Development and Training project to be launched in Ohio, is expected to prepare hundreds of residents of 21 southern Ohio counties for jobs. The entire area—approximately one-fourth of the State—has been faced with common economic problems. These include heavy unemployment, low income farms, stable or declining population, and a sharp drop in industrial payrolls as coal mines closed and manufacturing centers for pottery, glassware, and firebrick suspended or curtailed operations. The generally unfavorable economic picture is reflected in the eligibility of each of the 21 counties for ARA assistance. About 7,000 high school graduates per year swell the ranks of applicants competing for the inadequate number of jobs available in the area.

Recognition of the employment problems of this youth group, graduates and dropouts, was a primary consideration in the establishment of the training center of Jackson. The area is rural, noted for its apple crop and its heritage of warm Welsh hospitality. Local endorsement and sponsorship, essential for the success of the project, were provided by the Jackson Board of Education, which accepted local responsibility for the MDTA project and endorsed plans for a permanent Technical Training Center.

The Center opened its doors on January 6, 1946, with initial courses for clerk typist, clerk stenographer, and nurse aide. Subsequent weeks saw 13 other classes—bookkeeper, routeman, machine tool operator, auto mechanic (entry), auto service station attendant-mechanic, draftsman (entry), welder, auto body repairman (entry), custodian, cook, groundskeeper, farm mechanic, and home assistant. Adult classes have also been established in most of these occupations, but the major emphasis is on youth training. Proposals already approved provide for training of 579 youths and 334 adults. Training periods vary from a 3-week course for nurse aide to 50 weeks for auto mechanic and auto body repairman.

In addition to the regular subject curriculum, all trainees are graded each week on other factors pertinent to their employability. Ratings are made by each instructor on resourcefulness, initiative, cooperation, neatness, and personal grooming. A school counselor conducts private sessions with trainees who receive unsatisfactory ratings on these factors.

The shaded portion shows the area of the State to be included in the MDTA project.

Excellent buildings for classrooms were donated by the Globe Iron Company, a subsidiary of Interlake Iron, which had discontinued operations in Jackson. This property was permanently deeded to the Jackson Board of Education along with adjoining land which will be developed as a park and recreation area for the Center.

The progression from planning to the actual operation of classes was not accomplished without difficulty. Some opposition to the establishment of the Center was expressed in various southern Ohio communities. Agencies and organizations which had been diligently seeking to promote local employment opportunities for youth pointed out that operational plans of the Center might well encourage the exodus of local youth to the more industrialized northern section of the State. They pointed out that occupations selected for training were picked on the basis of statewide shortage lists and that the criteria for enrollment included a commitment from the trainee that he would be willing to consider employment in other sections of the State. Objections were withdrawn when it was explained that Ohio State Employment Service offices in the trainees' home area would make every effort to develop local jobs for the graduates, but that young people would continue to seek out-of-area jobs where local employment was unavailable.

Educators and ES personnel agreed that often graduates from rural high schools in southern Ohio are at a disadvantage in competing with graduates of large urban schools for jobs in northern sections of the State. A greater variety of specialized vocational courses and superior equipment and facilities for training provided the northern Ohio graduates with a considerable advantage in the labor market.

Proponents of the Training Center argued that specialized vocational

Robert E. Chapman is Manager of the Jackson local office, and Donald L. Robertson is MDTA Field Representative, Ohio Bureau of Unemployment Compensation.

training could bridge this disparity. Perhaps the most convincing argument in favor of the Center was voiced by the Governor, when he stated that a well-operated, well-equipped technical training center could be a definite asset in attracting new industry to the southern Ohio area. Proof of his statement was provided when a representative of a machine tool industry recently visited the Jackson local office while inspecting prospective sites for a new plant. His interest and curiosity increased when he was told that 30 trainees currently were enrolled in a 34-week machine tool operators course. Notes on the training equipment and curriculum being offered became a part of the data he assembled for presentation to his board of directors. Widespread newspaper publicity in all sections of the State and letters of inquiry from numerous employers indicate that graduation from the Center can indeed provide the key to job opportunities.

A public employment office well integrated and accepted in Jackson County proved indispensable to the activation of the Center. With only short notice, this city of approximately 6,800 was faced with the need for immediate living arrangements for 400 to 500 trainees who could not commute. Project funds did not provide for a paid director or supervisor of housing. The local newspaper requested residents to list any available rooms with a hastily formed volunteer committee on housing. Local residents accepted the local office manager's invitation to serve on this committee, which has inspected some 400 listed rooms to insure that minimum standards of comfort and convenience are met and that rents are within the limitation of training allowances.

During the first 3 months, new classes have started almost every Monday, and the housing committee has met all incoming trainees, welcoming them to the city, and directing them to rental units. Another volunteer committee has surveyed all leisure time and recreational facilities and developed an informational brochure which is presented to each trainee. When the local office manager pointed out that various financial hardships were being experienced by some trainees prior to the receipt of initial allowance checks, the Jackson Chamber of Commerce established a fund to provide loans for such emergencies. In short, the project has provided an outstanding example of cooperation among local community groups and various agencies of government.

How does Ohio evaluate this Center as a facility to promote employment for the unemployed and underemployed? With less than 3 months of actual operation, a comprehensive evaluation would be premature. Early experience indicates, however, that more emphasis needs to be placed upon both group and individual interviews by employment service representatives with trainees during the 2 weeks just prior to completion of courses. These applicant interviews include dissemination of labor market and occupational information, briefing for interviews with employers, and discussion of individual problems in connection with relocation. Job development on a statewide basis and clearance placement activity must parallel these applicant interviews for effective placement action.

Flexibility in training plans for various occupations is necessary. Authority to curtail some courses and expand others will be needed. Consideration has already been given to the training needs of applicants who were rejected for training due to obvious deficiencies in basic education. Early expressions of interest from a number of employers in various areas of the State seem to offer evidence that the Jackson Center will become the job passport for hundreds of southern Ohioans.

PITTSBURGH YOUTH

(*Continued from page 31*)

50 young persons referred to this course, 41 completed the training, and 40 had obtained positions through the Employment Service by the day of graduation. The lone exception had refused placement.

The Pittsburgh youth training program eventually will provide occupational training for approximately 565 young persons in the following occupations: Auto body repairman helper, auto mechanic helper, auto service station attendant, electrical appliance repairman helper, nurse aide/orderly, baker helper, arc welder, television service repairman and helper, electric refrigeration serviceman helper, maintenance man building helper, cook helper, waiter-waitress, clerk-general, furnace repairman helper, and shirt and uniform presser.

One of the major contributions to the success of the Pittsburgh Youth Training Program is the enthusiasm and cooperation of the Advisory Committee, the subcommittees, the community agencies, and the Boards of Public Education. From the inception of the program to completion of a course, regardless of the number of sessions that may be involved for one occupation, meetings are held, as required, by the Employment Service staff and assigned representatives of the Pittsburgh Board of Education and of the Advisory Committee. These meetings are important to solve speedily the problems which are certain to arise—problems of occupational selection which may change with fluctuations in employment prospects in the labor market area, dates and places of training, absenteeism, improper assignment, benefit payments, evaluation of placement possibilities, and many others.

At all times interested employers have been encouraged to visit schools. Their presence raises student morale, and their observations and comments on the training are valuable.

By the end of June 1964, when the program will be about 6 months old, eight classes will have been graduated. There is reasonable assurance that job opportunities will be available for all graduates. This is currently an on-going program, with training in various occupations beginning on different dates, and, in certain classes being offered more than once. The entire program must be completed by June 1965. Even with only a short period on which to base an evaluation, we believe that the program will succeed in achieving its goal—that of enabling untrained, unemployed young people to become responsible, self-reliant wage earners.

Youthful MDTA Graduates Find Jobs

The 1963 amendments to the Manpower Development and Training Act reflect Federal Government efforts to meet the challenge of the high rate of unemployment among youth and the rising number of teenage jobseekers. Joblessness of young people continues at a rate two to three times the average for the civilian labor force as a whole. Among nonwhite youths in the 16 to 19 age group, unemployment is almost twice that of white youths. Further, the number of youths competing for available jobs has been increasing, with indications that an additional 3.4 million in the 16 to 19 age group will be looking for full or part-time work in the 2 years 1964 and 1965—about 30 percent more than in the 2 closing years of the 1950's (2.6 million).

Changing occupational patterns also contribute to difficulties facing young entrants to the labor market. Recent technological and other changes in the economy are reducing unskilled and semiskilled job opportunities for young people with limited education, training, or experience.

For these reasons, the amended Manpower Development and Training Act broadened and strengthened the program by lowering the age of those eligible for training allowances from 19 to 17 years and permitting up to 25 percent of all those receiving allowances to be between the ages of 17 and 22. Previously, funds for youth training allowances were limited to 5 percent of total allowances paid annually under the MDTA program which, in effect, meant that only 10 percent of the persons receiving training allowances could be youths. Youth allowances of up to $20 per week are limited to disadvantaged out-of-school youths in special youth projects.

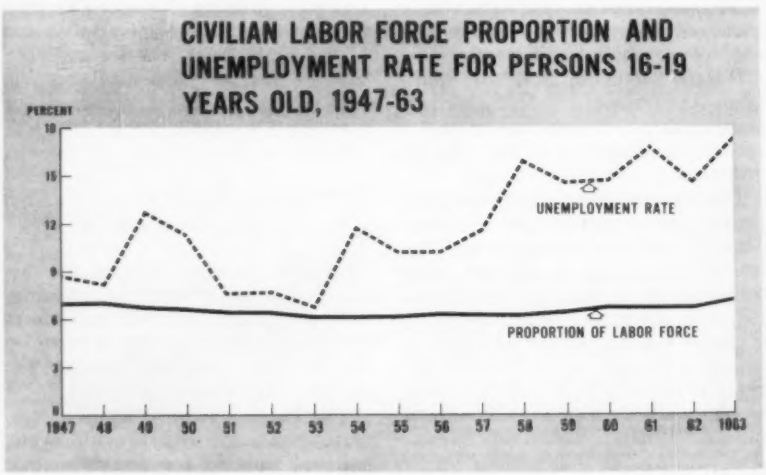
To discourage teenagers from dropping out of school, the amended MDTA stipulates that a training allowance may not be paid to any youth who has not graduated from high school unless he has been out of school for 1 year or more and until "local authorities after pursuing all appropriate procedures, including guidance and counseling, have concluded that further school attendance by such youth is no longer practicable."

Training Focuses on Disadvantaged Youth

In March 1963, the Department of Labor, confronted with fund limitations, restricted youth training allowances to special programs in metropolitan areas with an unfavorable environment. Such areas are characterized by a large proportion of low-income families, substandard housing, and lack of employment opportunities. Rural areas where migratory agricultural workers or low-income subsistence farm families are concentrated were also eligible.

By March 1, 1964, more than 130 special youth classroom-type projects had been approved to train over 12,400 youths at a total cost estimated at $25 million. Initially, this type of project has a specifically definied occupational objective. Most of these programs failed to reach the hard core unemployed, however. Because these youth often lack the educational achievement and motivation for MDTA occupational training, State agencies have been developing "multi-occupational" projects for large numbers of youths in need of intensive labor market orientation and counseling and improved basic academic skills prior to evaluation and selection for occupational courses. As a result of these efforts, some 17 large-scale multi-occupational projects have been approved for over 8,200, or two-thirds of the number approved for special youth training. Approximately 18,000 other youths have been enrolled in regular institutional training projects.

While special youth training projects have been approved in 30 States, 10 States account for two-thirds of the approved trainees: California, Connecticut, Illinois, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and West Virginia.



Of the 65 occupations approved for special youth training programs, 10 account for 45 percent of the youth trainees: stenographer, typist, hospital attendant, general office clerk, automobile mechanic, general machine operator, service station attendant, salesperson, automobile body repairman, and welder. Except for general office clerk and automobile service station attendant, these are also among 10 leading occupations for all MDTA institutional training programs.

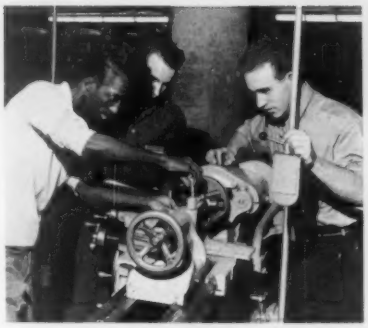
ES Activities Promoting Training

To determine their interest in and qualifications for training in regular as well as special projects, local public employment offices conducted over 156,000 screening interviews (including approximately 124,000 initial screening interviews) with youths 16 to 21 years old, from the beginning of the program through January 31, 1964. Reflecting the extensive counseling and testing used in trainee selection, local offices conducted over 40,000 counselling interviews with youths. The GENERAL APTITUDE TEST BATTERY was administered to nearly 23,000 youths, specific aptitude tests to over 26,000, and proficiency tests to nearly 4,000.

Referrals of youth to training through January 1964 totaled nearly 27,000, or approximately one of every five persons initially screened. Before the MDTA was amended to try to correct this effect, screening and testing eliminated youths who did not have the required aptitude, educational background, or motivation. The nature and length of specific training courses or inability to qualify for youth allowances caused others to lose interest. In addition, between the period of initial screening and referral to training, many found employment or withdrew their applications for reasons such as returning to school.

Characteristics of Young Trainees

About 15,400, or 28.5 percent, of the first 54,000 MDTA trainees were between the ages of 16 and 21. This overall youth participation rate in institutional training programs (regular as well as special youth projects)



Machine shop training is conducted under the close supervision of an instructor.

was close to the proportion of jobless youth among the Nation's unemployed in 1963 (30.5 percent). However, only 7.6 percent of the MDTA trainees were under 19 years, considerably below the proportion in this age group among the Nation's unemployed (18.6 percent). This was a siginficant factor in the recent lowering of the age limit for payment of youth allowances.

Almost 60 percent of the youths enrolled in MDTA courses were young men, just about equaling the proportion of men among all MDTA trainees. Over 20 percent of those under 22 were heads of families or households (over 30 percent of the young men compared with 11 percent of the young women).

Limited education has previously been a major handicap for many applicants seeking to qualify for available training opportunities. Whereas a Bureau of Labor Statistics survey in March 1962 revealed that more

Training as a general office clerk under MDTA is helping girls to find employment.

than one-third of all the unemployed (36.2 percent) had an 8th grade education or less, only about 10 percent of all MDTA trainees and 5 percent of the youths had no more than elementary school education. Further, as compared with about 37 percent of all the unemployed, over 60 percent of trainees, and nearly two-thirds of those under 22 years, were high school graduates. The high proportion of trainees with a high school education or better is attributable in good part to the types of occupation in which training is being conducted and to the large numbers of undereducated unemployed who have been unable to pass the qualifying aptitude tests. Many applicants for training could not even be tested, since they were unable to read or write and the newly developed picture or nonverbal test had not yet been introduced.

Consequently, Congress amended the Manpower Development and Training Act to permit more of the unemployed with an inadequate education to qualify for training. If needed, trainees could be eligible for allowance payments for up to an additional 20 weeks "to make possible the development of the basic education skills which are required if a person is to qualify and benefit from any occupational training." It was expected that in the usual case this would involve special training in the general area of reading, writing, language skills, and arithmetic.

Many Long-Term Unemployed in Training

Almost 9 out of every 10 youths enrolled in MDTA courses were unemployed. Underemployed youths who were upgrading their skills accounted for 10 percent, and family farmworkers for only 1 percent, of the youthful trainees.

Under the MDTA program, an outstanding job has been done in enrolling long-term unemployed youths (those out of work 15 weeks or more) in training programs. Nearly 40 percent of the trainees had been seeking work for 15 weeks or more, about one and a half times the 26 percent long-term jobless among the Nation's unemployed in 1963. Also, the very long-term unemployed—

those jobless for 6 months or more—accounted for over 25 percent of the unemployed youth trainees (compared with only 12.5 percent of all the Nation's unemployed in 1963).

Occupational Distribution

About half of the youth trainees are distributed among the same broad occupational groups as all trainees. However, slightly over 25 percent of the youth are training for clerical or sales jobs, compared with about 20 percent of all trainees. However, some 33 percent of all MDTA trainees but only 29 percent of the youths are preparing for skilled occupations.

Occupational group	Percent distributions	
	All trainees	Youths[1]
Total	100.0	100.0
Professional and managerial	9.6	8.9
Clerical and sales	21.1	25.2
Service	9.3	8..9
Skilled	32.9	28.8
Semiskilled	24.2	25.9
All other	2.9	2.3

[1] Under 22 years.

Five occupations account for over 50 percent of the enrolled young men—automobile mechanics and repairmen (18.9 percent), general machine operators (12.9 percent), aircraft subassemblers (7.9 percent), other mechanics and repairmen (6.6 percent), and welders (6.0 percent). Two occupations account for more than half of the young women trainees—stenographers and typists (42.4 percent) and nurse aides (11.5 percent).

Youth Trainee Employment Exceeds MDTA Average

Of about 17,000 persons who completed MDTA courses prior to September 30, 1963, young people had the best record in obtaining employment. Over 71 percent of those under 22 obtained jobs compared with 68 percent for those over 22 years of age. Nearly three-fourths of all graduate trainees under 19 years of age, and 84 percent of the young men have found jobs.

Since the ultimate objective of MDTA is to train unemployed and underemployed persons and place them in productive employment, it appears that youth training under the Act has been effective with the youth population selected for training. However, much is still to be accomplished in qualifying the hard-core undereducated and other disadvantaged youth for jobs in our rapidly changing economy. With the aid of the amendments to the MDTA and the possibility of further assistance through the youth provisions of the President's proposed program to combat poverty, it is anticipated that additional progress will become possible.

—Melvin M. Rottenberg *and* Harry Novick, *U.S. Employment Service.*

LATEST TRAINING HIGHLIGHTS

Under ARA Program (As of May 1, 1964)

Approved ARA training projects	653
Total trainees approved	30,041
Trainees enrolled May 1, 1964	2,504
Total trainees enrolled	24,308

Employment Status (Nov. 1961 - April 1964)

I. Completed training	18,120
A. Obtained employment	13,537
Training-related	12,204
Nontraining-related	1,333
B. Referred for employment, awaiting referral, and other (including status unknown)	4,583
II. Employment Service placement activity	
A. Placed by ES	8,763
B. Other	4,774

State agency Trainee Selection and Referral Activities (Sept. 1962 - March 1964)

Screening interviews	76,026
Counseling interviews	19,259
General aptitude tests	12,693
Specific aptitude tests	17,782
Proficiency tests	1,719
Referrals to training	16,600

Under MDTA Program (As of May 1, 1964)

Approved institutional training projects	2,762
Projects started (preliminary, cumulative)	2,535
Total trainees approved	126,426
Total trainees enrolled	88,541

Employment Status (Sept. 1962 - Feb. 1964)

I. Completed training	33,560
A. Obtained employment	23,933
Training-related	21,257
Nontraining-related	2,676
B. Referred for employment, awaiting referral, and other (including status unknown)	9,627
II. Employment Service placement activity	
A. Placed by ES	17,040
B. Other	6,983

State agency Trainee Selection and Referral Activities (June 1962 - March 1964)

Screening interviews	746,827
Counseling interviews	201,757
General aptitude tests	114,717
Specific aptitude tests	119,009
Proficiency tests	16,665
Referrals to training	101,106

Summer Jobs

(*Continued from page 24*)

ticipants. "Parents think it's a wonderful thing," he said. "Quite a few have stopped me on the street to say, 'I'm sure glad you have this youth program going. It's kept my boy busy this summer.' "

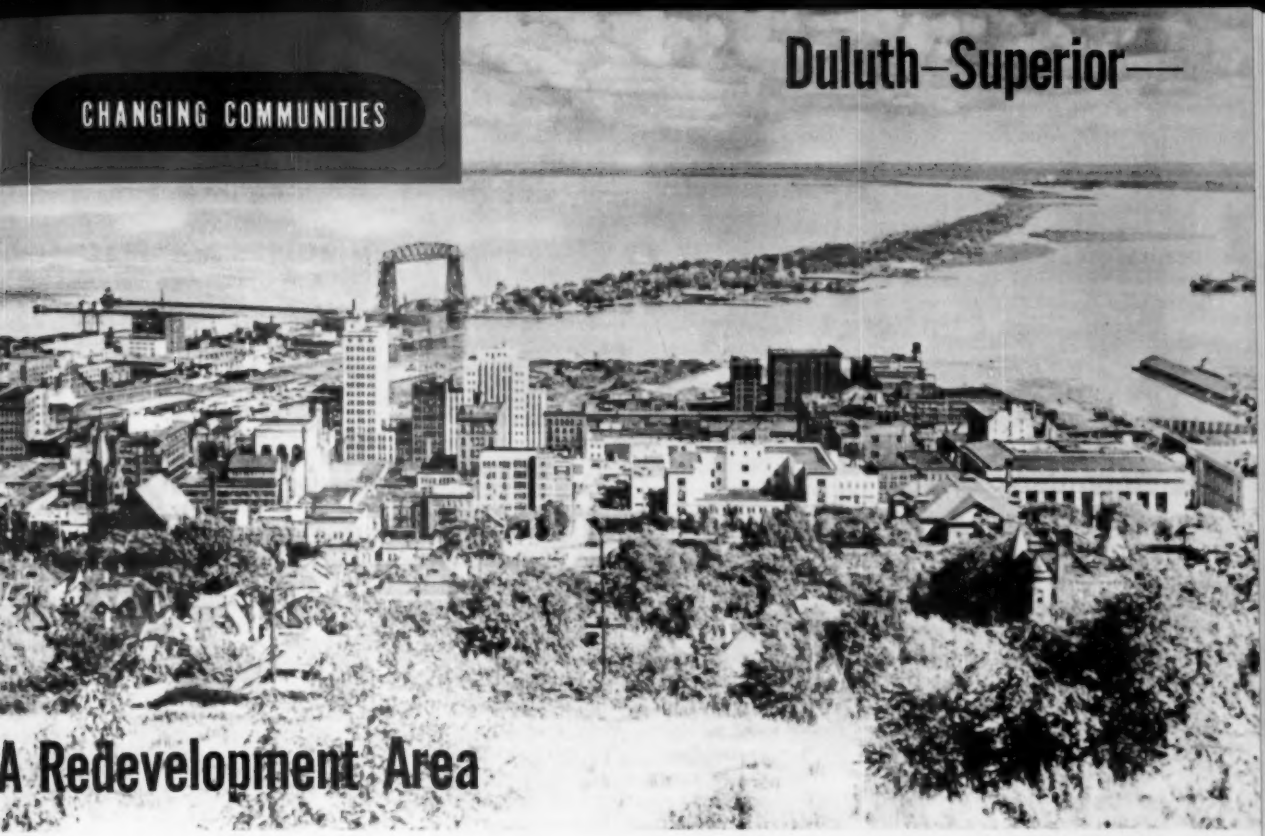
The school director, who contributed as much time to the program as anyone, said he thought it would be "even better next year. It has certainly caught on with people here. I don't know when I've heard so much comment about a youth program."

A followup survey is planned to find out how much the students earned and their own suggestions for improving the program.

Although the results of the Pittsburg endeavor were not dramatic in its first year of operation, it was a step in the right direction in solving the problems of jobs for youth. It pointed out the need for concerted community action and gave the youth of the community the feeling that grownups care about their problems and are doing something about them.

CHANGING COMMUNITIES

Duluth–Superior—



A Redevelopment Area

Duluth-Superior, Wis., at the western tip of Lake Superior, is the furthermost inland port on the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Seaway, and one of the largest ports in the United States in terms of total tonnage handled. Iron ore and grain are the principal products shipped. Aside from the urban communities of Duluth and Superior, most of the labor market area (the city of Duluth, Minn., and Douglas County, Wis.) consists of rolling woodland and submarginal farmland.

The 1960 population of Duluth-Superior, totaled 151,900, only slightly higher than 10 and 20 years earlier. The population has been relatively stable because of sizable outmigration.

Nonfarm wage and salary employment averaged 49,000 in the Duluth-Superior area in 1963. Leading industries are primary metals, food processing, transportation (both rail and water), trade, service, and government. Five daily and seven weekly newspapers and five radio and two TV stations serve the area.

Background of Unemployment Problems

Area employment has been greatly affected by technological changes and other developments in the steel and transportation industries, by significant seasonal fluctuations in local employment, and by lack of year-round job opportunities. A significant decline in iron ore shipments from over 61,100 short tons in 1955 to about 37,500 in 1960 has brought manpower cutbacks in both water and rail transportation. Since this period, there has been some improvement. However, discontinuance of short, unprofitable runs and mechanization have further reduced the number of railroad jobs.

Decreased demand for manpower on the Great Lakes also has resulted from the shift to new, larger, and faster ships which move more iron ore in less time. The shipment of grain—of major importance to Duluth-Superior's economy—now requires about half of the manpower formerly used because of mechanization of grain elevators. These changes have cut average employment in transportation-communications–utilities from 8,600 in 1959 to about 7,600 in 1963. Ten years ago, more than 12,000 workers were employed in these industries.

Total manufacturing jobs averaged 9,100 in 1963, up 200 since 1959 as a decline of 300 in durable goods was offset by a 500 gain in nondurable goods, mostly in printing and publishing and food products. Decreases in payrolls in other durable goods (mainly transportation equipment and primary metals) during the 5-year period reflect the local sensitivity to national conditions in the steel and metal-using industries.

Local unemployment has been aggravated by job losses in several industries in nonmanufacturing, which declined from 41,200 in 1959 to 39,900 in 1963. Trade was hardest hit, but construction and mining were also affected. Several department stores and smaller shops closed down, other retail outlets reduced staffs, and limited building has caused

This article summarizes the Duluth-Superior Area Redevelopment Manpower Report *which is based on information compiled by the Minnesota Department of Employment Security in cooperation with the Wisconin State Employment Service. Copies of the full report soon will be available on request to the Branch of Area Labor Market Reports of the U.S. Employment Service, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C., 20210. Area redevelopment manpower reports have been released for the Detroit, Pittsburgh, Providence-Pawtucket, Huntington-Ashland, and New Bedford labor market areas, also available on request.*

at least one-third of the area's construction workers to seek out-of-area jobs. The finance-insurance-real estate industry remained stable over the past 5 years, while services and government increased by 800 and 1,200.

Unemployment was already at a high level in March 1958, when Duluth-Superior was officially classified by the Department of Labor as an area of substantial unemployment. It was moved into the substantial and persistent unemployment category in July 1961 and recommended to the Department of Commerce for designation as a redevelopment area under the then newly enacted Area Redevelopment Act.

Seasonal Cutbacks Intensify Problems

Area unemployment usually reaches its peak in late fall and winter, when seasonal layoffs in transportation, trade, and construction—because of the shutdown of lake shipping and curtailment of local building activities—add to the group already unemployed. Many residents who work out of area on warm weather jobs also return home to seek employment during the winter. In some winter months of the past 5 years, local unemployment rates have reached nearly 13 percent of the work force.

New Plant Moves In

Between 1962 and 1963, nonfarm wage and salary employment increased by 500, mostly in manufacturing, in contrast to the drop of 400 between 1961 and 1962. Moderate expansions in electrical machinery—due to staffing of a new electronic aircraft and space vehicle control systems plant—accounted for a sizable portion of the 700 job gain in area factory employment.

Annual Average Total Unemployment Rate

Year	Duluth–Superior	U.S.
1959	9.2	5.5
1960	7.5	5.6
1961	9.8	6.7
1962	9.2	5.6
1963	7.8	5.7

While manufacturing advanced, nonmanufacturing lost 200 jobs from 1962 to 1963. A sizable decline (400) in transportation-communication-utilities, plus moderate layoffs in trade (200) and construction (100), produced a net drop (200) in nonmanufacturing despite a combined increase of 500 jobs in government and services. Following an upswing in ore-hauling by railroads, steamship companies, and associated water activities, net tonnage of shipments reached alltime highs during the late fall of 1963. The shift of activities to a local dock from another section of the State by one firm boosted transportation employment in the twin ports but failed to effect an area gain in the industry.

The drop in unemployment to an average of 4,800 in 1963 from 5,700 in 1962, combined with a 500 decrease in the area's work force to 61,600, indicate further outmigration and other withdrawals from the labor market. As as result, except for 1960 when 7.5 percent of the work force were jobless, the 1963 rate of 7.8 percent was the lowest for any recent year.

Most Jobless Are Men in Prime Working Age

Almost three-fourths of the job applicants for work in the Duluth-Superior public employment offices are men. Railroad workers and construction workers, as well as persons with experience in trade, are among the applicants, 22 percent are skilled and another 15 percent are semiskilled. Jobseekers in professional and managerial, clerical and sales, and service occupations are also well represented. About one-third of the applicants are unskilled and entry workers.

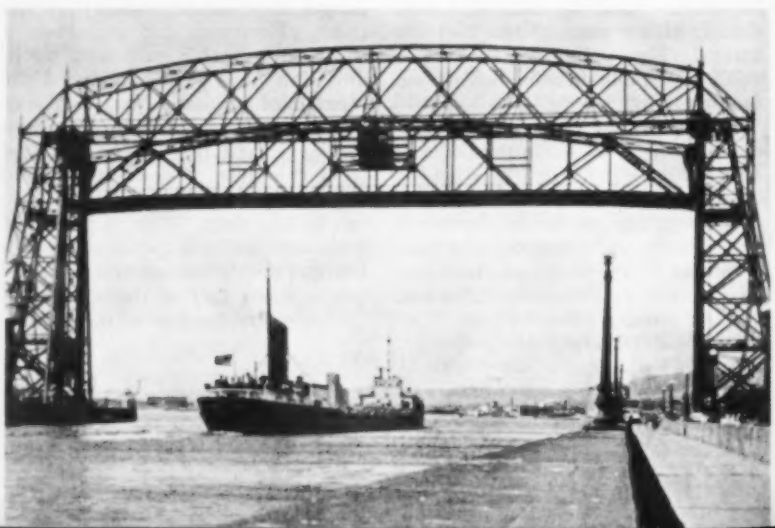
While most unemployed are in the prime age group of 20 to 44, their supply has been reduced, partly because of outmigration resulting from limited local job opportunities. About 30 percent are between the ages of 45 and 67, while some 10 percent are under 20 years of age. About 60 percent of the jobseekers have had some high school training and 42 percent are high school graduates.

ARA, MDTA, and APW Help

To increase the potential skills of the Duluth-Superior work force, 11 training courses in five occupations had been approved under the ARA

(*Continued on page 43*)

A lake freighter passes under the world-famous Aerial Lift Bridge at Duluth. This bridge, one of two such in the world, spans the ship canal from Lake Superior into the protected Duluth Harbor.



Department Stores Provide a Million Jobs

Opportunities in a broad range of jobs are increasing in department stores which employed 980,000 persons in 1963—a record expected to be exceeded in 1964. In the years 1958–63, about one out of every nine workers in the retail trades was in a department store job (table 1). Of these, 60 percent worked in the 7 percent of all department stores which had 500 or more employees (table 2).

Department Store Merchandising Changing

Retailing innovations in the past decade or so, which saw unprecedented expansion of supermarkets into nonfood items, departmentalized retail outlets operated by mail order houses, "discount department stores," and variety chains, have tended to blur the definition of a department store. Prior to World War II, the typical department store was in the downtown area and depended on downtown business. As the city grew, so did the department store.

However, during the postwar period, the old-line department store faced increased competition as large segments of the population shifted to the suburbs and new developments in merchandising met wider consumer acceptance.

The movement of department stores to the suburbs has increased the need for part-time sales personnel in the suburban stores as these stores are open later than the downtown stores. As a consequence, the suburban branches tend to have a larger share of part-time workers than the downtown stores. Many of these part-time employees are housewives, students, and other secondary workers. In some instances, where suburban stores are opened in the more remote areas, recruitment problems arise in obtaining personnel because of the inconvenience in traveling.

The peak period in department store sales is usually at mid-day. In their efforts to obtain the necessary sales personnel to meet this peak load, department stores find housewives and other part-time workers can be more readily recruited for the suburban stores than for the downtown stores, since such workers live closer to the suburban stores.

While there is a need for more sales help in suburban stores, there is a greater concentration of the administrative staff in the downtown area where the accounting, purchasing, warehousing, and other sales supporting services are still generally concentrated. Although these functions involve fewer part-time workers, the demand for full-time workers in certain craft and office occupations is strong.

Table 1.--Employment in Department Stores and in All Retail Establishments 1958-1963

Year	Average employment		
	All retail stores	Department stores	
		Number	Percent of all retail stores
	(thousands)		
1958	7,902	865	10.9
1959	8,182	897	11.0
1960	8,388	917	10.9
1961	8,344	925	11.1
1962	8,521	960	11.3
1963	8,722	980	11.2
Increase 1958-1963:			
Number	820	115	--
Percent	10.4	13.3	--

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 2.--Department Store Employment by Size of Establishment 1/

Employee-size of establishment	Distribution of employment	
	March 1963	March 1959
	(percent)	
Total 2/	100.0	100.0
Less than 50	6.4	7.1
50-99	7.8	6.8
100-249	12.0	12.2
250-499	13.7	13.2
500-999	15.2	13.8
1,000 and over	44.9	46.9

1/ Preliminary.

2/ Excludes Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands.

Source: U.S. total--Bureau of Labor Statistics; Employment-size detail--Bureau of Employment Security.

Department Stores Meet Competition

The traditional department store is meeting the challenge of changing times through greater operating flexibility which is reflected in mergers of establishments, the opening of branch stores in suburban areas, the introduction of electronic processing in accounting, inventory, and material handling systems, and changes in the quality and kinds of merchandise. For example, merchandise may be upgraded in one store while another store of the same company may sell lower priced items only. In other instances, both kinds of merchandise are carried under the same roof. The trend to self-service and longer store hours has also increased.

Despite inroads by other retail competition, department store sales between 1954–63 increased a sharp 62.4 percent, from $10,272 million to $16,683 million, while sales in other retail establishments rose 44.5 percent, from $158,863 million to $229,752 million, according to the Department of Commerce.

West Has Largest Gain

The West experienced by far the sharpest employment gain, while the North Central region lost ground as the principal employment center. Employment in Western States, including Alaska and Hawaii, rose 35.4 percent to 161,700 between March 1958 and March 1963, compared with the North Central States' advance of only 9.8 percent to 283,600. The Northeast and South followed the West with increases of 18.5 and 15.0 percent.

As a result of these shifting regional employment trends, the West accounted for 17.3 percent of the Nation's department store employment in March 1963 compared with 15.0 percent in March 1958, while the North Central region's share declined slightly to 30.4 percent from 32.5 percent. The Northeast and South, however, maintained their relative positions during the period.

Of the 37 States with 4,000 or more department store workers in either March 1958 or 1963, only Arkansas, the District of Columbia, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and West Virginia had declines, while Pennsylvania experienced no change. Contributing to the decrease in the District of Columbia was a sharp growth in population, accompanied by expanding branch store activities, in the Washington suburbs of Virginia and Maryland. Substantial unemployment as well as other economic factors caused declines in the other four States.

Employment Concentrated in Large Areas

Latest area data on department store employment, derived from a special public employment service survey, showed that more than two-thirds of the industry's workers were employed in 39 major labor market areas in October 1962. Each of these areas had 4,000 or more department store workers, but surveyed stores in these areas were only 46 percent of the total reporting. In all 39 areas, department store employment represented 1.8 percent of total nonagricultural employment, ranging from 1.3 percent in New York to 3.4 percent in Fort Worth.

Most Employees Are Women

Seven out of every 10 employees in department stores are women, compared with about 4 out of 10 workers in all other retail trade. Regionally, the proportion of women workers in surveyed stores varies slightly—from 66 percent in the South to 71 percent in the North Central States. The proportion of women department store workers among the 39 areas ranged from almost

The modern department store conducts training classes for its selling personnel.

This article summarizes Industry Manpower Survey No. 109, analyzing employment in department stores (1957 Standard Industrial Code 5311). The study is based partly on reports gathered by local offices of State employment service agencies affiliated with the U.S. Employment Service from 1,455 establishments with about 72 percent of total industry employment. Copies of the full report may be requested from the Branch of Industry and Skill Surveys, U.S. Employment Service, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C., 20210.

60 percent in San Antonio and San Diego to over 80 percent in Buffalo and Portland, Oregon.

In June 1962, almost a third of the Nation's nonsupervisory work force in department stores worked less than 35 hours per week, while over 52 percent worked 40 hours or more. The Northeast had the highest proportion of the industry's workers employed less than 35 hours and the smallest proportion with 40 or more hours of work. In contrast, the South reported almost 60 percent of its nonsupervisory workers employed 40 or more hours. Because of the increasing participation of women in part-time sales and clerical positions, a larger proportion of women than men department store workers were employed less than 35 hours. Among women, a higher proportion worked short hours in the Northeast than in the other regions.

Recruitment Problems

More than one-fourth of the reporting establishments indicated some difficulty in filling job vacancies.

Table 3.--Employment Trends in Reporting Department Store Establishments in 39 Major Labor Market Areas With 4,000 or More Department Store Workers October 1962

Area	Employment in October 1962		
	Number	Percent change from October 1961	Percent women of total 1/
Total, U.S.	692,851	+1.7	69.0
Total, 39 areas	472,090	+1.3	69.1
Percent: 39 areas of U.S. total	68.1	-	-
New York	54,338	-2.9	65.1
Los Angeles-Long Beach	40,913	+3.5	69.2
Chicago	39,449	+4.3	70.3
Philadelphia	25,761	+6.3	67.9
Boston	19,616	-1.1	67.4
Detroit	17,010	-1.7	73.6
St. Louis	15,531	-6.6	69.1
Washington, D.C.	15,406	-0.6	68.2
San Francisco-Oakland	14,808	+7.7	72.4
Minneapolis-St. Paul	13,949	-4.0	74.2
Baltimore	12,463	+3.3	67.0
Newark	11,243	+6.0	68.6
Cleveland	11,015	-7.3	71.5
Pittsburgh	10,622	-5.5	69.9
Cincinnati	10,577	+10.5	69.7
Milwaukee	10,143	-9.8	73.7
Indianapolis	10,057	+5.0	70.1
Atlanta	9,304	+6.7	70.2
Dallas	8,524	-3.1	62.9
Seattle	8,325	+0.5	62.4
Houston	8,115	+5.1	64.2
Miami	7,903	+14.4	61.7
Tampa-St. Petersburg	6,746	+15.1	60.4
Kansas City	6,675	+7.0	71.2
Columbus, Ohio	6,667	-11.6	69.6
Buffalo	6,159	-9.8	80.2
Fort Worth	6,163	+7.7	73.7
Denver	6,122	+8.9	75.6
Dayton	6,088	+8.3	71.8
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	5,944	+8.9	62.4
New Orleans	5,902	+1.0	68.7
Rochester	5,811	+8.7	67.8
San Diego	5,693	-9.0	58.6
Portland	5,478	-6.5	80.9
Hartford	5,444	+4.1	69.9
Richmond	5,031	+10.1	68.9
San Antonio	4,644	-4.0	56.9
Toledo	4,345	+4.4	72.8
Omaha	4,106	+3.9	75.2

1/ Includes only firms reporting total and female employment for October 1962. In all but five areas, employment in firms reporting both total and female employment represented at least 90 percent of total employment reported for the area.

Source: Bureau of Employment Security.

One of the many jobs in a modern department store.

Although openings covered a broad range of occupations, most were for experienced sales persons, particularly in apparel, shoes, and home furnishings. Other jobs for which some establishments reported recruiting difficulty were tailors and seamstresses, comptometer operators, secretaries, TV repairmen, commercial artists, displaymen, and department managers.

Earnings Relatively Low

Average hourly earnings of nonsupervisory department store workers rose 20.3 percent to $1.72 from 1958 to 1963, compared with an 18 percent increase to $1.80 for workers in all retail establishments, exclusive of eating and drinking places. Despite the larger percentage increase for department store workers, their hourly rate average is below that in retail trade as a whole, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In June 1962, average hourly earnings ranged from $1.49 in the South to $1.83 in the West, with 59 percent of all nonsupervisory employees earning under $1.50 per hour.

The weekly earnings of nonsupervisory department store workers in 1963 averaged $58.65 compared with $68.04 for nonsupervisory workers in all retail trade. However, the latter averaged 37.8 hours per week as against 34.1 hours for department store workers.

Contributing to the rise in department store earnings in 1961 was Public Law 87–30 requiring a minimum wage of $1.00 an hour, effective September 3, 1961, to workers in retail establishments engaged in interstate commerce with a specified dollar volume of business. This legislation provides for subsequent increases in hourly earnings to $1.15, effective September 3, 1964, and $1.25, effective September 3, 1965.

—Ernest F. Schroeder, *U.S. Employment Service.*

Nonfarm Placements Gain

Nonfarm placements in March gained nearly 16 percent from February to a total of 478,000, a greater than usual increase for this time of year. Leading the increase was a 31 percent rise in construction placements and a 21 percent gain in the service industry. In the larger metropolitan areas, the over-the-month increase was also notable—30,000, or 14 percent. March placements, nationwide, fell short of the year ago level by 3 percent. Much of the decrease was due to the overall reduction of resources from a year ago for employment service activities and the temporary assignment in recent months of employment service staff to assist in the processing of unemployment insurance claims.

Over-the-Month Gains Widespread

Placements in construction of 31,000 in March rose 31 percent, sharpest over-the-month gain among industry divisions. Services, with 195,000 placements, increased 21 percent, followed by manufacturing with 103,000 placements and a 12 percent advance. Among occupational groups, the services category, with 165,000 placements, recorded the sharpest over-the-month gain—24 percent—while the unskilled, with 126,000 placements, and the skilled with 28,000, each registered a 16 percent increase. All of these gains were greater than seasonal.

Placements in Durable Goods Rise Over the Year

March placements in durable manufactures totaled 50,000, up 3 percent from a year ago, as employment in this sector increased 2 percent. Placements in construction jobs also rose, by 2 percent, reflecting a continued increase in building activity over the year. Other industries showed moderate declines. A 16 percent decline in apparel placements from a year ago was concentrated in California, New York, and Pennsylvania, while the 18 percent drop in government was due to a tapering off of the Accelerated Public Works program (most of the APWA funds were exhausted by the end of January).

In contrast to other occupational groups, professional and managerial placements, at 20,000 in March, reflected a 3 percent over-the-year gain.

Counseling and Testing Ease Off

Individuals counseled in March totaled 116,000, and the number tested 194,000; both were slightly under the preceding month. Compared with a year ago, the number of counselees showed a 6 percent decline and the number tested, a 4 percent decrease. Earlier scheduling this year than last of the high school counseling and testing program accounted in part for the over-the-month and over-the-year decline. Some States also reported that curtailed MDTA activities were partly responsible.

Nonfarm placements by occupation and industry in the United States [1], March 1964

Occupation and industry	Number March 1964	Percent change from		Percent distribution March 1964
		Previous month	Year ago	
Total placements [2]	478,100	+15.5	−3.5	100.0
By occupation:				
Professional and managerial	20,200	+7.9	+3.4	4.2
Clerical and sales	73,600	+2.6	−4.5	15.4
Service	165,000	+23.8	−2.8	34.5
Skilled	27,700	+16.4	−2.3	5.8
Semiskilled	65,400	+12.9	−4.3	13.7
Unskilled	126,100	+16.5	−4.8	26.4
By industry:				
Construction	31,400	+31.2	+1.5	6.6
Manufacturing	103,000	+11.6	−3.7	21.5
Durable goods	50,200	+14.2	+2.9	10.5
Nondurable goods	52,800	+9.2	−9.1	11.0
Public utilities	15,200	+10.9	−3.3	3.2
Trade	109,100	+10.1	−4.4	22.8
Services	195,100	+21.2	−2.7	40.8
Government	12,500	+0.6	−17.8	2.6
Other	11,900	+4.1	−4.7	2.5

[1] Includes Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands.
[2] Items may not add to total due to rounding.

Youth Placements Rising

In the first quarter of 1964, some 822,000 youths filed new job applications, up 8 percent from the same period of 1963; 212,500 were counseled. Nonfarm placements of youth, at 281,000, increased by 4,000, or 1.4 percent. However, the number counseled was 2 percent fewer than in the first quarter of 1963.

Attention being focused on the problems of youth in the labor market has been accentuated in recent months by the disclosure of the high rejection rate of Selective Service draftees and the President's proposed war on poverty to be waged through

Nonfarm Placements by Occupation, 1963

	Youth under age 22		Adults age 22 and over		Percent youth of total
	Number (000's)	Percent distribution	Number (000's)	Percent distribution	
Total	1,647.8	100.0	5,033.3	100.0	23.5
Professional and managerial	27.1	1.8	224.4	4.5	10.8
Clerical and sales	411.4	26.6	608.6	12.1	40.3
Service	406.0	26.2	1,734.0	34.5	19.0
Skilled	42.3	2.7	327.1	6.5	11.5
Semiskilled	228.6	14.8	647.4	12.9	26.1
Unskilled	432.3	27.9	1,419.8	29.5	22.5

the "Economic Opportunity Bill of 1964" which has been introduced in the Congress.

Many Youth Enter Labor Market

Increasing numbers of youth entering the labor market in this decade present special problems of training and absorption. In 1960, youthful entrants approximated 2.1 million; by 1963, their number had reached about 2.4 million. Toward the end of the 1960's forecasts estimate that 3.0 million will be entering the labor force each year.

At 15.6 percent in 1963, the unemployment rate of young people was nearly three times that of the total civilian labor force. In March 1964, the unemployment rate of the 5.5 million youth in the labor market was 15.0 percent. According to the latest data available for 1963 high school graduates and dropouts in the labor market (October 1963), 18 percent of the graduates and 32 percent of the dropouts were unemployed.

The 1,900 local public employment offices regularly provide many specialized services to unemployed youths.

In 1963, some 3.5 million new job applications were filed by youngsters under age 22. Young people represented about a third of all job applicants registered with the Employment Service in 1963—about the same proportion as in the ranks of the unemployed. Because of their lack of job experience as well as the increasing complexity of today's labor market, some 700,000, or 20 percent, of the youthful applicants registered with public employment service offices were given job counseling, compared with only 5 percent of the applicants in the other age groups.

More than 1.5 million nonfarm job placements—24 percent of the total in 1963—made by local employment service offices were of young people. Their relative lack of job training is reflected in the much smaller proportion who were placed in professional or skilled jobs than workers in the other age groups (see table).

DULUTH-SUPERIOR

(*Continued from page 38*)

program by January 1964. These occupations include electronic assembler (900) being trained to staff a new plant producing electronic equipment, cook (25), stevedore (45), machine tool operator (30), and nurse aide (47).

Additional training under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) has been started or completed in the area. Six courses have been approved in five occupations—for draftsman (15 trainees), occupational therapy assistant (30), welder (110), automobile mechanic (15), and clerk-stenographer (20).

Under the technical assistance section of the ARA program, five studies to total $98,000 have been approved.

Also under the ARA program, the building of an arena-auditorium in Duluth, to cost $6.1 million, was started in May 1963. This project is expected to provide permanent employment for a number of workers, and to give Duluth the facilities to compete as a convention city.

More recently, an ARA industrial loan of $4,095,000 was granted to establish a hardboard manufacturing plant in Superior. This project will broaden the economic base in Douglas County through diversification of industry and utilization of existing forest and water resources; it is expected to create several hundred new jobs and a number of satellite industries.

Public Works Acceleration Projects

Under the Public Works Acceleration Act of September 1962, approximately $1.5 million have been committed for projects in the Duluth-Superior area, all of which were started in 1963, with a number continuing well into 1964. Included are welfare department offices, water facilities, public building improvements, pier and wharf construction, road construction, wildlife facilities, community and municipal buildings, a lift station force main, waste treatment facilities, an auditorium, and street improvements. These projects are expected to provide numerous job opportunities for the unemployed and to improve the economic resources of the area.

In addition to an expected increase in employment in the electrical machinery industry, the area's outlook may be brightened by the announced intentions of several large firms to develop new taconite ore processing plants in northern Minnesota. This should increase employment opportunities for many local workers, both in the construction phase of the development, and—since Duluth-Superior is a primary market center for the surrounding territory—ultimately in wholesale and retail trade.

Branch of Area Labor Market Reports.

Convention Placement

Sir: On behalf of the Assembly and the Social Work Vocational Bureau we want to thank you for the outstanding service your agency and the Ohio State Employment Service rendered at the 90th Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare in Cleveland. This was a "repeat" performance for Ohio, since our first experiment was in Cleveland in 1953. How the convention service has grown and matured!

Again we would like to request that the U.S. Employment Service provide a similar service at the 91st Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare to be held in Los Angeles May 24–29, 1964. . . .

I understand that you will need to ask the California State Employment Service to give this service in 1964. I would appreciate an early reply telling who will be responsible for setting up the service. . . . Of course California is no stranger to the Conference. On two previous occasions, in 1955 and 1959, they served the National Conference on Social Welfare when it met in San Francisco.

LOUISE N. MUMM

Secretary, Committee on Personnel, National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., New York, N.Y.

Convention Placement Service has been arranged for the National Conference on Social Welfare from May 24–29 in Los Angeles with the California ES as the host.

Interpretation

Sir: The ____ State agency would like clarification of the following situation:

Three referrals to an employer on one job opening. The employer hires all three. What is the status of the additional two hires?

While we are aware of the need for a job order prior to referral, we feel that a proper selection was made as each of the three persons selected was matched to the one existing job order. The fact that the employer accepted all three candidates is indeed a tribute to the adequate job of selection made by the local office. Shall they be penalized for this?

LOUIS F. BUCKLEY

Regional Administrator, Bureau of Employment Security, New York, N.Y.

If the local office has met all the requirements for placement—receipt of an order, selection of the applicant, referral, and verification—the three placements should be reported.

Section 1320.06, part II of the ES Manual, ***states, "Enter a realistic figure to indicate the number of workers the employer wishes to hire in this occupation at this time." If the number entered proves to be unrealistic, it should be changed on the order in the same way it would be changed when the employer increases the number while the office is trying to fill an original order which is still active. The additional openings should be included in item 14 of the ES–209 report.***

If some of the applicants are hired for positions in a different occupational code from that appearing on the order, then these "hirings" should not be counted as placements.

Job Guide for Young Workers

Sir: Thank you for the copy of the *Job Guide For Young Workers.* This is one publication which we look forward to receiving and which we are most happy to call to the attention of school counselors throughout Ohio. We have already been contacted by a representative of the State office of the Ohio State Employment Service and have prepared a joint communication from the OSES Director and myself to junior and senior high school principals throughout the State transmitting a copy of this publication. We are also announcing it in our May/June issue of *Ohio Guidance News & Views* . . .

JOHN G. ODGERS

Director, Division of Guidance and Testing
State of Ohio Department of Education
Columbus, Ohio

Aptitude Test Development

Sir: We are prepared to assist your office in the development of an aptitude test for use in selecting offset duplication machine operations.

There are literally thousands of job openings each year for qualified applicants in commercial printing plants, lettershops, private printing and duplicating plants, and government agency reproduction plants. The level of skill required is much lower than required for operating printing presses, but many operators, after acquiring experience on these duplicating machines, do move on to become offset printing pressmen.

Also, it appears that special training programs for jobless youths, under MDTA grants, are being established to prepare them for jobs as offset duplicating machine operators. We feel very strongly that these young people could benefit by being selected through a validated aptitude test for such training. We assume that, once you have developed this aptitude test, it can be converted into your special nonverbal aptitude tests.

We already have enlisted the assistance of one of the national trade magazines whose readership consists mainly of employers of offset duplicating machine operators. We estimate we can easily obtain a minimum of 100 employees to participate in the research project by going to employers in the following States: Pennsylvania, New Jersey, California, Michigan, Ohio, and Connecticut. Please advise us if you want us to move ahead on this project.

SAMUEL M. BURT

Managing Director, Education Council of the Graphic Arts Industry, Inc., 1411 K Street NW., Washington, D.C., 20005.

We appreciate your interest in this project since the occupation is one which may be suitable for many of the educationally deficient. The study will provide us with an excellent opportunity to determine whether our new USES nonreading measure of general learning ability provides similar results to the measure of G in the GATB.

As soon as you have provided us with the names and addresses of these employers, we will arrange to have them contacted by State Employment Service representatives.

MATURE DROPOUT

(*Continued from page 25*)

of the obstacles. Training allowances make the program feasible for youths with financial responsibilities. Emphasis on acquiring a marketable skill holds appeal for many youths not attracted by a regular curriculum. Tutorial services allow opportunities for overcoming deficiencies in basic skill areas. Even here, some youth have failed to profit because of lack of lasting motivation, illiteracy, emotional problems, etc.

While most dropouts express a desire to overcome their employment handicap, doing so depends greatly on the individual's motivation and personal resources.

In June . . .

The Veterans' Stake in the Labor Market

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es newsletter

SENATE SUBCOMMITTEE MANPOWER REPORT

The Subcommittee on Employment and Manpower of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare released its report on April 19. Titled "Toward Full Employment: Proposals for a Comprehensive Employment and Manpower Policy in the United States," the report is a product of nearly a year of intensive investigation and research.

The report dwells briefly on the evolution of a manpower policy in the United States, and then explores in detail the dimensions and problems of the current "Manpower Revolution." Existing programs are appraised, and comprehensive recommendations are made for a far-reaching and effective employment and manpower policy. Particular emphasis is placed on the problems and needs of youth, especially the disadvantaged and school dropouts, and on the employment dilemma of older workers, minority groups, and the hard-core unemployed.

The Employment Service figures prominently in many of the proposals, indicating new dimensions of activity and responsibility.

INTERSTATE CONFERENCE

During the Interstate Conference of Employment Security Agencies, held in Washington, D. C. on March 31-April 2, the Committee on Employment Service Programs and Operations met with Bureau of Employment Security officials to discuss problems and needs and to formulate recommendations.

The committee was advised by Bureau officials that the emerging programs indicate that nearly 3,500 new full-time counselors will need to be added to the public employment service in the next 5 years. The committee supported the higher standards which have been set for counselors, but it cautioned that application of these standards must be geared to State problems related to such factors as organization, salary structure, recruitment, and retention.

Bureau officials informed the committee that the 1965 fiscal year appropriation request includes funds for 10 additional Apprenticeship Information Centers to be located in appropriate metropolitan areas. This would bring the total to 15. It was pointed out that although the main purpose of the centers is to provide apprenticeship opportunities information, as Youth Employment Centers are established, the Apprenticeship Centers located in the same areas would

be expected to become an identifiable part of the Youth Centers.

The establishments of special Youth Opportunities Centers for out-of-school youth who are having employment problems also was discussed. The committee recommended that these proposed centers be coordinated and identifiable with mainstream local office operations, but not duplicate them. It also was recommended that the employment service responsibilities in the antipoverty campaign be well defined and adequately financed for effective operation.

YOUTH SERVICES

A series of five 2-day biregional workshops devoted to new approaches to youth services began in May and will continue into June. Regions III and V met in Washington, D. C. on May 19-20; regions I and II in New York on May 26-27; regions IV and VIII in Atlanta on June 2-3; regions VI and VII in Chicago on June 8-9; and regions IX, X, and XI in San Francisco on June 11-12.

Principal participants at all meetings were State ES directors, State MDTA coordinators, State and metropolitan area youth specialists, State staff concerned with allowances and budgeting, BES regional administrators, regional directors of USES, OMAT, and HEW, regional MDTA coordinators, and USES regional youth specialists.

The focus of these meetings was on youth amendments to the MDTA, the implications of the proposed antipoverty bill, the problems of disadvantaged youth, and the new and expanded responsibilities of the Employment Service. The workshop subjects centered on operating techniques and problems in implementing recent MDTA amendments; operating procedures of the proposed Youth Opportunities Centers; and the administration and budgetary aspects of the new youth programs.

DATA PROCESSING TO SPEED PLACEMENT

A Senate Joint Resolution, relative to the use of data processing in placement of unemployed workers, was introduced at the 1964 First Extraordinary Session of the California State Legislature. The resolution declares that the mobility of the Nation's work force must be maintained and promoted, and that evolving complexities of the national economy require new methods to analyze and digest rapidly the vast quantities of necessary labor market information essential in planning effective worker relocation. The resolution cites the pilot study of data processing made by the California State Department of Employment. It petitions the Secretary of Labor to require the Bureau of Employment Security to undertake a study of the applicability and value of a nationwide use of data processing to speed correlation of work skills and abilities of the unemployed with job opportunities anywhere in the United States.

Employment of Foreign Workers in 1963

Foreign-worker employment in U.S. agriculture declined in 1963 for the fourth successive year. Average foreign-worker employment dropped 20 percent from 1962 to 56,500 in 1963, while domestic employment declined only 3 percent over the same period. Peak foreign-worker employment, 105,500, was 17 percent below that of 1962 and lower than for any year since 1950. Total admissions declined 4 percent. The general downtrend reflected further restrictions on the use of foreign workers, in addition to spreading mechanization, poor crop harvests in some areas, and increased availability of domestic labor.

Some 209,200 workers from other countries were admitted to work on U.S. farms during 1963, the smallest number since 1951. These included mainly 186,900 Mexicans, but also 12,900 British West Indians, 8,500 Canadians, and some 900 Japanese. Foreign workers contributed 8 percent of the total 8.1 million man-months of seasonal hired labor used during the year.

Of the total 550,400 man-months of Mexican labor, 57 percent were used by California, 20 percent by Texas, 10 percent by Arizona, and 13 percent by 16 other States. Peak Mexican employment, 90,100, was 19 percent below that of 1962 and lower than in any year since 1950. For the year as a whole, Mexican-worker employment averaged 45,900, or 23 percent less than in 1962. Owing to restrictions on the use of Mexicans on long-term jobs, the period of employment for the average Mexican worker was shortened from 2.94 months in 1962 to 2.62 months in 1963. Consequently, the decline in the number of admissions was relatively small—4 percent. Even so, the number of Mexicans contracted in 1963 was the smallest since 1950.

Florida accounted for 84 percent of the total 103,900 man-months of British West Indian employment. The remainder was divided among 10 other States. Average British West Indian employment, 8,700, was down 4 percent from 1962, but both the peak employment (14,900) and the number of admissions (12,900) were the highest since 1946.

Japanese and Filipino employment averaged 1,300, about the same as in the preceding year. Canadian employment reached a peak of 8,400, slightly lower than in 1962.

Major User States

Thirty-one States reported use of foreign workers in 1963, one less than in 1962. Tennessee and Iowa used Mexicans in 1962 but did not employ foreign workers in 1963. Rhode Island, which did not report foreign workers in 1962, reported a peak of 56 Canadians in 1963. Of the 30 States with foreign workers in both years, 21 had lower peak foreign-worker employment in 1963.

About 95 percent of the total 678,300 man-months of foreign labor were used in eight States. In four of these States, Arkansas, California, Florida, and Texas, both foreign and domestic employment declined. In Arizona and New Mexico, foreign-worker employment decreased while domestic-worker employment increased. In Colorado and Michigan, the reverse was true.

California's foreign-worker employment averaged 27,600 in 1963, 16 percent less than in 1962. Domestic-worker employment declined 3 percent over the same period. The tomato crop, which is handled primarily by foreign workers, was drastically curtailed from 1962's bumper crop. Fewer braceros were required for harvesting lemons, lettuce, and several other fruits and vegetables.

In *Texas,* foreign-worker employment averaged 9,100, a drop of 42 percent from 1962, compared with an 8 percent decline for domestic workers. In the Texas cotton har-

One of the reception centers through which Mexican farmworkers enter the United States under Public Law 78.

vest, the decline was 25 percent for foreign workers and 27 percent for domestic workers as machines continued to replace hand labor. However, in the Trans Pecos area, where most of the cotton is harvested by Mexicans, growers were sometimes obliged to return to hand harvesting because the bolls were too low on the plant to be harvested efficiently by machine.

For all Texas activities, the sharpest declines in foreign-worker employment occurred in the January-May period when labor requirements were low and more domestic workers were available than a year earlier. Increases in domestic employment in January-May 1963, as compared with a year earlier, were related to the Secretary of Labor's "adverse effect" ruling which did not go into effect until March 29, 1962. This ruling, which set an hourly rate of 70 cents as the lowest at which Mexicans could be authorized in Texas, tended to increase wage offers to domestic workers.

British West Indian average employment in *Florida* was 7,300, slightly lower than a year earlier. Domestic-worker employment was also slightly lower. Expanded sugar cane acreage resulted in higher foreign-worker employment levels during the January-April period. The effect of the freeze of December 1962 was to cut short the citrus harvest season. As a consequence, British West Indian employment fell below 1962 levels from May through July. During the remainder of the year the foreign-worker employment pattern was practically the same as in 1962.

Cotton cultivation in *Arkansas* required slightly more foreign workers than in 1962. Domestic employment in this activity was well below that of the previous year, but most of the decrease was in nonuser areas. Bracero cotton-harvest employment fell off substantially in 1963, primarily because of greater use of mechanical harvesters.

Higher wage rates, restrictions on the use of foreign contract labor, and a general trend toward hiring more year-round workers combined to lower foreign employment and raise domestic employment in *Arizona*. The former averaged 14 percent lower than in 1962 and the latter 8 percent higher. Domestics partially replaced Mexicans in several activities, notably the green onion harvest, spring lettuce harvest, and irrigation work.

Foreign-worker employment in *New Mexico*, which averaged 600, was 60 percent smaller than in 1962. Several hundred persons who were reported as Mexican contract workers in 1962 obtained permanent visas and were reclassified as year-round domestic workers. Employment of domestic seasonal workers rose 6 percent as they took jobs in activities formerly dominated by Mexican contract labor.

Foreign workers were used in *Michigan* from July to December. Their employment reached a peak of 13,500 in August when they were engaged primarily in harvesting pickles. Because pickle production was heavier in 1963 than in 1962, foreign-worker employment rose 12 percent. A decline of 14 percent in average domestic-worker employment resulted from poorer cherry, strawberry, and blueberry crops. Generally, the fruit pickers were unwilling to harvest pickles.

Foreign-worker employment in *Colorado* did not change significantly between 1962 and 1963, but domestic-worker employment dropped 17 percent. Many workers left Colorado farms to take farm jobs in other States or to take industrial employment in metropolitan areas.

Seasonal Hired Farm Employment, U.S. and Selected States, 1963 Average

[In thousands]

States	Total		Domestic		Foreign	
	1963	Change from 1962	1963	Change from 1962	1963	Change from 1962
U.S. total	674.6	−32.3	618.1	−18.1	56.6	−14.2
California	125.3	−7.7	97.7	−2.5	27.6	−5.2
Texas	125.9	−17.0	116.8	−10.3	9.1	−6.7
Florida	52.3	−2.1	45.0	−1.8	7.3	−0.3
Arizona	17.9	+0.3	13.4	+1.0	4.4	−0.7
Michigan	20.7	−3.0	19.0	−3.2	1.7	+0.2
Arkansas	17.0	−3.9	16.0	−3.4	1.0	−0.6
Colorado	6.8	−1.1	5.1	−1.1	1.7	(1)
New Mexico	2.4	−0.9	1.8	(1)	0.6	−0.9
All other States	306.4	+3.2	303.2	+3.1	3.2	(1)

[1] An increase of fewer than 50 workers.

Source: Bureau of Employment Security, In-Season Farm Labor Reports.

New DOT Training Materials

The first tryout of programmed training materials covering Volume I and the industry arrangement of titles of Volume II of the new DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL OCCUPATIONS *was conducted recently. The tryout involved 31 persons with at least 1 year of college. Each took a pretest on the material covered in the program, and after completing it, took an alternate test. Scores of the two tests were compared to estimate the amount learned. The average pretest score was 11 percent of total items correct; on the posttest it was 73 percent. The 366 frames of the program were completed in about 5 hours. A summary tabulation, frame by frame, of errors and comments has been prepared and will be used to revise each frame to remove programming errors. Two more tryouts of the program are planned, each to be followed by appropriate revisions.*

Fewer Hard-to-Fill Jobs

Curtailed recruitment by defense-oriented industries contributed in large measure to a drop in interarea recruitment by State employment security agencies over the year ending March 1964. In addition, nearly a third of the year-to-year drop reflected earlier completion of the annual recruitment of teachers for assignments at military installations overseas conducted by the Department of Defense. Reduced needs among government agencies was the major source of the remaining decline. The number of jobs in interarea clearance in March totaled 17,700, a drop of 7,300, or nearly 30 percent, from the corresponding month a year earlier.

Among occupational groups, the decrease in job openings for professional and managerial workers dominated the over-the-year decline. In addition to the drop in teacher recruitment this spring, significant reductions occurred in the number of hard-to-fill openings for engineers, natural scientists, draftsmen, technicians, management trainees, surveyors, and veterinarians. Among clerical and sales workers, reduced requirements for stenographers and typists by the Federal Government in the District of Columbia and by an insurance firm in Colorado accounted for the bulk of the drop. Fewer personnel needs by local law enforcement agencies in California and decreased requirements for hospital attendants at a State facility in Illinois accounted for the fall in total hard-to-fill openings for service workers.

Practical and registered nurses and telephone operators were listed among the hard-to-fill jobs between December and March.

An over-the-year pickup in skilled worker needs was largely in the aircraft industry. Added hard-to-fill openings were for airplane mechanics, pattern and model makers, machine-tool operators, tool and die makers, and aircraft assemblers in California, Georgia, and Texas.

Among semiskilled workers, the complexion of hard-to-fill demand changed substantially over the year. Sizable declines in openings for surveyors' assistants in Alaska (before the earthquake), textile workers in Massachusetts and Virginia, and machine shop workers in Connecticut were partially offset by added needs for hat and capmakers in Missouri and routemen in Maine.

Quarterly Trend Parallels Over-the-Year Change

In March 1964, hard-to-fill job openings placed in interarea recruitment were 16 percent below the December 1963 level. Demand for all major occupational groups declined over the quarter and largely paralleled the over-the-year changes.

During the first 3 months of 1964, total interarea recruitment for professional and managerial personnel dropped 10 percent. The largest quarterly changes were seasonal, the most significant being the decline in teacher recruitment. Despite a stepup of 500 in school staffing programs in New York, Washington, and Massachusetts, total hard-to-fill needs for teachers dropped by 1,700 openings as the annual drive for assignments at U.S. military bases overseas was concluded. In contrast, social worker needs rose seasonally. The annual search for summer camp counselors got underway in Massachusetts, Illinois, and Pennsylvania, boosting interarea recruitment for social and welfare workers by 1,000.

Slowdown in Demand for Engineers, Technicians

Interarea recruitment for engineers dropped by almost 400 during the first quarter of 1964, resuming the decline which had abated during the latter part of 1963. In March, hard-to-fill needs for engineers totaled 2,300—65 percent below the mid-1962 peak. Demand for all engineering specialties dropped, with the largest decline in requirements for electrical engineers. Fewer needs in the aircraft, ordnance, and electrical machinery industries in California, Georgia, Kansas, Missouri, and Pennsylvania accounted for most of the slide over the quarter. A drop in interarea recruitment for highway programs in Washington and Alaska was also significant.

The pattern of engineering shortages, however, remained relatively unchanged. Hard-to-fill openings for electrical and mechanical engineers,

the two largest engineering specialties, were nearly three-fifths of all openings in engineering occupations placed in interarea recruitment in March. These jobs were scattered over 43 States; about a fifth of them were located in California and a tenth in New Jersey. Many of the jobs in these two States were in the ordnance and aircraft industries. Sizable space-related openings were also reported in Alabama and Florida. More than half of the demand for aeronautical engineers occurred in St. Louis and Cape Kennedy for hard-to-fill jobs in missile and spacecraft programs.

Hard-to-fill needs for natural scientists dipped slightly to under 450 between the end of December and the end of March. Federal facilities in the District of Columbia and the ordnance industry in California were partially successful in recruiting physicists, earth scientists, and mathematicians over this 3-month period. However, about a quarter of all interarea recruitment for natural scientists in March was concentrated in these same areas.

A decline in hard-to-meet demand was also evident for draftsmen and other technicians, mostly working in support of engineers and scientists. The contractions were largely in ordnance in Alabama, construction in Texas, manufacturing in Wisconsin, aircraft in Missouri and Kansas, and the State government in Washington.

Needs for draftsmen constituted about half of the interarea recruitment for technicians in March. The largest requirements were reported by a Federal map-making facility and an aircraft establishment in St. Louis and a shipbuilding firm in Connecticut. Among other technicians, the most significant needs were for aerospace technicians at a Federal laboratory in Huntsville, Ala. and for systems engineers and engineering aides in California, the District of Columbia, Missouri, Virginia, and Washington.

The widespread shortage of health workers was again illustrated by the large numbers sought through the Federal-State clearance system. Hard-to-fill jobs for registered nurses rose nearly 100 to over 1,350 between December and March. Interarea recruitment of semi-professional medical service workers, including licensed

Nonagricultural Inventory of Job Openings by State and Occupational Groups 1/ March 1964

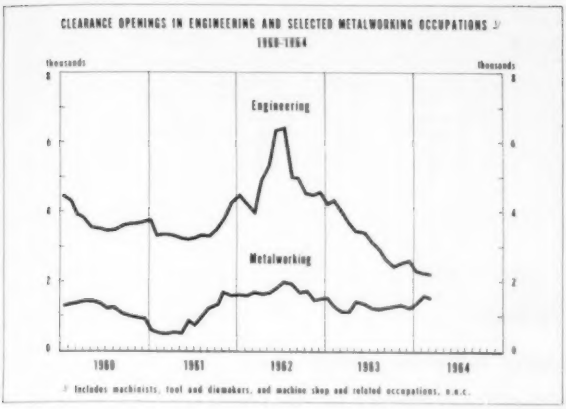
State	Total	Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales	Service	Skilled	Semiskilled
U.S.	17,741	9,730	1,614	1,120	4,102	1,073
Ala.	220	169	0	0	51	0
Alaska	16	5	1	0	10	0
Ariz.	250	77	17	40	83	33
Ark.	104	42	1	27	32	2
Calif.	2,591	1,590	65	121	627	186
Colo.	150	123	0	0	27	0
Conn.	483	298	42	27	108	8
Del.	48	46	0	2	0	0
D.C.	1,214	434	470	295	15	0
Fla.	376	289	13	0	70	4
Ga.	389	67	150	11	153	8
Hawaii	1	1	0	0	0	0
Idaho	14	5	0	0	9	0
Ill.	1,383	826	108	63	277	109
Ind.	427	207	9	4	165	17
Iowa	394	203	52	11	111	17
Kans.	357	96	7	0	250	4
Ky.	65	25	1	0	39	0
La.	26	10	0	2	14	0
Maine	222	11	0	3	8	200
Md.	144	83	3	1	34	23
Mass.	1,043	752	26	10	149	81
Mich.	485	148	20	2	276	39
Minn.	559	186	161	118	48	42
Miss.	75	21	5	1	40	8
Mo.	701	442	28	33	116	82
Mont.	20	15	1	0	2	2
Nebr.	73	33	15	4	21	0
Nev.	166	49	54	52	2	9
N.H.	168	69	6	2	69	22
N.J.	555	432	3	23	75	22
N. Mex.	136	25	20	60	31	0
N.Y.	672	572	0	2	97	1
N.C.	272	101	32	8	129	5
N. Dak.	69	8	18	28	13	2
Ohio	516	278	5	14	194	25
Okla.	218	89	45	4	79	1
Oreg.	38	25	2	0	11	0
Pa.	625	538	3	1	76	6
R.I.	130	20	7	0	67	36
S.C.	22	11	1	0	10	0
S. Dak.	46	23	4	9	9	1
Tenn.	15	5	0	0	10	0
Tex.	365	157	0	3	188	17
Utah	96	75	3	0	2	16
Vt.	111	40	7	6	52	1
Va.	397	121	63	105	95	13
Wash.	937	669	126	25	62	15
W. Va.	75	34	2	2	37	0
Wis.	259	171	18	1	57	12
Wyo.	23	14	0	0	5	4

1/ Job openings for unskilled workers totaled 102 and were distributed as follows: California 2, Indiana 25, Massachusetts 25, Minnesota 4, Pennsylvania 1, Vermont 5, and Washington 40.

Nonagricultural Job Openings on State Inventories by Selected Occupational Fields

Occupation	Number of openings: March 1964	Dec. 1963	March 1963	Percent change from: Dec. 1963	March 1963
Total	17,741	21,093	25,006	-15.9	-29.1
Professional and managerial	9,730	10,964	16,266	-11.3	-40.2
Engineers	2,267	2,634	4,042	-13.9	-43.9
Social and welfare workers	1,674	676	1,664	+147.6	+0.6
Teachers	799	2,468	3,006	-68.4	-74.1
Trained nurses	1,353	1,284	1,520	+5.4	-11.0
Natural scientists	434	471	694	-7.9	-37.5
Draftsmen, technicians, engineering and physical	619	717	1,217	-15.7	-49.1
Healers and medical service occupations, n.e.c.	491	430	253	+14.2	+94.1
Clerical and sales	1,614	2,224	2,540	-27.4	-36.5
Stenographers and typists	790	1,520	1,663	-48.0	-52.5
Service	1,120	1,448	1,479	-22.9	-24.3
Firemen, policemen, and detective, public service	516	825	658	-37.5	-21.6
Skilled	4,102	4,796	3,504	-14.5	+17.1
Metal workers	1,561	1,260	1,191	+23.9	+31.1
Mechanics and repairmen	841	1,015	770	-17.1	+9.2
Semiskilled	1,073	1,624	1,199	-33.9	-10.5

n.e.c.--Not elsewhere classified.



practical nurses, rose similarly to nearly 500 over the quarter. Needs for these workers appeared heaviest in California, Illinois, and New Jersey.

Skilled Workers Needed by Aircraft Industry

As during the previous 3 quarters, activity in the aircraft industry dominated interarea recruitment for skilled and semiskilled workers between the end of December and the end of March. Total hard-to-fill needs for such workers dropped over 1,200 during the first quarter of 1964 despite significant rises in skilled manpower requirements in aircraft plants in California, Georgia, and Texas. The aircraft industry in other States, as well as the textile, apparel, shipbuilding, and construction industries, were chiefly responsible for the first quarter drop in skilled and semiskilled worker requirements.

Despite the overall decline in interarea recruitment for skilled and semiskilled workers, hard-to-fill needs for machinists, tool and die makers, and other skilled machine shop workers continued to rise. Aside from the aircraft industry, needs were traced to the automotive industry in Michigan and to other durable goods industries in Indiana and Illinois.

Government Needs for Clerical Workers Decline

Hard-to-fill needs for clerical and sales workers dropped by over 600 during the first quarter of 1964. Recruitment of stenographers and typists, primarily by the Federal Government in the District of Columbia and local government agenies in California, fell by 700, partially counterbalanced by an increase of 150 for hard-to-fill telephone operators' jobs in Georgia. Nevertheless, interarea recruitment of secretaries, stenographers, and typists continued to account for well over half of all interarea recruitment for clerical and sales workers.

Half of Clearance Placements in Three States

Nonagricultural clearance placements totaled 34,900 during the 3 months December through February, compared with 46,300 during the previous 3 months and 36,100 during the same period a year ago.

Slightly over half of the placements during the past 3 months were in the three States which account for about 28 percent of nonagricultural employment: California led the Nation with 10,300 placements, followed by New York (4,100), and Pennsylvania (3,400). Six other States reported clearance placements of 1,000 or more, including Maryland (2,700), Illinois (1,900), Massachusetts (1,600), Texas (1,400), the District of Columbia (1,100), and Michigan (1,000).

Each spring, camp counselors are in demand for summer work.

Photo courtesy National Park Service

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.—Selected Local Office Employment Service Activities, March 1964

Table 2.—Nonagricultural Placements, by Special Applicant Groups, March 1964

Table 3.—Nonagricultural Placements, by Industry Division, March 1964

Table 4.—Status of MDTA Institutional Training Program Through April 1964

Table 5.—Status of Trainees in MDTA Institutional Projects Completed Through February 1964

Table 6.—Status of ARA Trainees First Quarter 1964—Cumulative November 1964 Through March 1964

More detailed data are provided monthly in EMPLOYMENT SERVICE STATISTICS, available on request to the U.S. Employment Service, Bureau of Employment Security, Washington, D.C., 20210.

Table 1.--Selected Local Office Employment Service Activities
March 1964

State	Nonfarm Job Openings		Nonfarm Employer Contacts 2/		New Applications 3/		Counseling Interviews		Placements			
										Nonagricultural		
	Total available openings 1/	Percentage change from year-ago	Total (except mail)	Percentage change from year-ago 4/	Total	Percentage change from year ago	Total	Percentage change from year-ago 4/	Total agricultural	Total	Percentage change from year-ago	Short-time
Total	835205	19	261696	-18.0	873617	15	195485	-6.6	141295	478054	-3.5	158931
Alabama	15230	3.6	3497	-5.9	12537	-4.7	2278	-3.1	569	9690	4.0	3259
Alaska	1528	-18.5	736	4.0	1620	4.7	482	73.3	0	574	-13.6	76
Arizona	11356	-3.1	4878	15.0	9683	2.5	2485	23.0	48119	7586	-13.2	2191
Arkansas	11402	14.7	2676	1.6	11825	8.0	2606	6.5	554	9355	13.6	3361
California	93152	-.5	21362	-3.8	126136	4.5	18507	-15.9	9288	54517	-7.7	22408
Colorado	9405	-18.1	3049	-11.2	9978	-4.1	2052	-32.0	703	5450	-20.1	2108
Connecticut	14912	-.3.1	3002	-21.6	15624	9.3	3811	2.3	224	6223	-20.4	1327
Delaware	1285	.7	384	-18.5	1249	5.2	659	-31.0	21	532	3.9	81
Dist. of Col.	9680	-11.4	2279	-21.0	5368	5.2	2192	32.9	0	3700	5.5	1389
Florida	33044	8.3	3984	-32.7	17681	1.1	3292	-1.8	22984	20989	-3.5	4803
Georgia	20302	21.5	8405	-33.7	17767	10.5	3118	3.0	781	12917	7.5	2056
Guam	1375	-10.4	18	--	78	22.0	0	--	0	65	-25.3	0
Hawaii	2690	3.2	274	-45.1	3445	-15.5	530	-9.4	71	921	7.3	58
Idaho	3216	-16.1	874	-17.7	3569	4.8	980	-4.0	407	2115	-26.3	640
Illinois	28635	3.2	23325	-20.9	32450	-13.1	7914	-7.8	531	13908	-16.9	3951
Indiana	16171	21.2	5657	-28.1	21172	3.9	4642	10.9	115	7507	14.9	1381
Iowa	10144	5.3	7258	20.1	8509	14.1	1825	12.7	1133	6232	-.4	2085
Kansas	10207	-5.9	3055	-17.7	7625	3.6	2102	-6.5	351	5476	-22.6	1980
Kentucky	7715	8.8	1467	-59.7	13534	10.3	3622	12.9	145	4291	-16.3	907
Louisiana	10118	.5	2639	-33.1	9748	-10.1	1785	-13.2	217	6783	-7.1	2194
Maine	9080	20.2	870	-16.6	5338	31.6	2101	59.4	26	1376	-1.8	164
Maryland	11180	9.4	3115	-4.20	13835	-2.1	3219	-24.7	582	6448	6.9	1114
Massachusetts	25531	-1.8	14084	2.3	28350	7.7	6283	9.1	355	12365	-.7	2110
Michigan	21174	18.1	6213	-29.5	44259	3.6	5304	-21.6	214	12368	9.8	3300
Minnesota	11012	2.3	4678	22.2	13162	-6.5	2159	-24.7	196	5104	-14.1	1443
Mississippi	12073	1.9	4152	-.4	10580	8.4	4655	20.1	4266	7993	-4.3	2043
Missouri	14674	4.5	4265	-11.4	17848	-2.0	4081	-.8	303	7307	-2.4	1879
Montana	2994	-5.9	2848	-22.1	3337	-6.7	1485	-13.2	805	1776	-17.5	399
Nebraska	5241	-21.8	2717	-48.7	3881	-5.9	2177	-3.5	407	3549	-32.3	1539
Nevada	3134	-20.0	1027	-9.5	3518	5.3	496	2.1	738	2005	-24.0	695
New Hampshire	3405	27.1	420	-37.0	4730	32.6	688	-27.7	5	1183	32.9	379
New Jersey	24038	-4.0	8603	-11.1	26619	-7.9	4187	-20.7	858	10401	-7.5	2871
New Mexico	3935	-13.8	953	-27.2	4829	-.9	1266	-.9	261	2974	-23.3	1393
New York	116491	-1.6	43345	-15.7	79391	5.7	22293	14.1	390	72545	2.2	35065
North Carolina	17027	-.2	3409	-25.5	21185	11.2	4334	3.7	9981	10169	-2.6	1169
North Dakota	3764	9.8	934	-25.9	3486	34.0	748	17.8	181	1680	.8	507
Ohio	27009	-.4	4534	-66.3	39369	-14.1	4639	-59.8	1745	14177	-12.7	5914
Oklahoma	16271	-2.4	2993	-42.9	10083	2.0	2586	-6.8	183	12896	-4.0	7415
Oregon	7430	.5	4224	-15.4	11001	18.8	3613	-5.0	1120	4488	-11.8	1204
Pennsylvania	32224	3.8	18396	-16.6	48965	-1.9	16315	-4.1	8821	19650	5.3	5706
Puerto Rico	4657	-10.4	1513	-16.4	12724	6.1	2938	-2.1	2041	3371	-11.5	98
Rhode Island	4522	1.4	3424	-10.2	4688	1.2	1359	.6	17	2405	-.7.9	353
South Carolina	8649	-10.2	1171	-27.3	10285	19.8	1971	39.1	1630	5274	-20.1	1041
South Dakota	4440	8.0	704	30.4	2306	-9.0	597	-32.2	1627	1467	-.8	705
Tennessee	11916	-1.2	2213	-25.4	11452	-3.9	2315	-32.0	2485	8108	-6.1	1383
Texas	59790	8.0	13901	-6.8	52303	1.2	10551	(5/)	19361	42067	1.5.3	15616
Utah	4399	-13.6	2004	5.1	4013	-3.3	2231	-5.9	43	2715	-20.5	659
Vermont	2025	-1.7	213	-19.9	1789	8.2	247	30.7	56	823	-2.9	137
Virginia	17456	12.2	2075	-17.0	11700	-4.2	4685	1	161	8207	2.4	1668
Virgin Islands	1703	-5.3	75	11.9	221	31.5	52	-23.5	0	82	-40.6	1
Washington	15101	18.6	4385	-25.6	14523	3.2	3761	-17.2	1925	6384	-.1	2719
West Virginia	3762	-16.7	1358	-18.0	7910	12.2	2739	-6.9	51	2758	-22.1	944
Wisconsin	16018	8.1	3339	-13.5	14753	-6.1	4684	-12.2	72	4256	-29.8	694
Wyoming	1513	10.3	728	-18.9	1592	-3.0	504	13.8	182	912	6.7	371

1/ Opening on hand at the beginning of month plus openings received during the month.
2/ Represents employer visits and telephone contacts.
3/ Should not be interpreted as a measure of the total number of new job applications at Employment Service offices, since there are some types of applicants for whom written applications are not taken.
4/ Not computed if State volume for either period was under 50.
5/ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Table 2.--Nonagricultural Placements, by Special Applicant Groups
March 1964

State	Total	Women	Persons under 22 years	Persons 45 years and other	Veterans 1/	Handicapped
Total	478,054	209,454	98,234	103,453	78,539	21,998
Alabama	9,690	3,941	2,744	1,405	1,067	201
Alaska	574	284	148	83	85	13
Arizona	7,586	3,459	1,327	1,490	1,471	394
Arkansas	9,355	3,204	2,404	1,936	1,467	499
California	54,517	22,700	14,644	12,038	11,088	1,447
Colorado	5,450	1,649	1,254	967	1,375	193
Connecticut	6,223	2,786	1,620	1,087	821	387
Delaware	532	217	73	93	82	12
Dist. of Col.	3,700	1,841	602	667	664	264
Florida	20,989	9,425	4,017	4,269	3,456	785
Georgia	12,917	5,375	2,511	1,775	1,528	350
Guam	65	2	12	4	8	0
Hawaii	921	320	224	126	137	43
Idaho	2,115	1,033	587	410	327	102
Illinois	13,908	4,439	2,699	2,389	3,400	628
Indiana	7,507	3,122	1,920	1,211	1,171	374
Iowa	6,232	1,963	1,753	1,143	1,397	450
Kansas	5,476	1,801	1,283	1,185	1,090	286
Kentucky	4,291	1,600	951	870	730	187
Louisiana	6,783	2,696	1,382	1,274	1,160	214
Maine	1,376	634	421	219	167	40
Maryland	6,448	2,907	1,190	1,321	1,048	104
Massachusetts	12,365	6,065	2,402	2,184	1,561	268
Michigan	12,368	4,484	2,937	2,168	2,083	820
Minnesota	5,104	2,194	1,269	1,119	1,183	319
Mississippi	7,993	3,573	1,895	1,257	829	257
Missouri	7,307	2,857	1,789	1,260	1,235	302
Montana	1,776	699	391	329	416	77
Nebraska	3,549	921	836	792	969	386
Nevada	2,005	942	273	545	460	61
New Hampshire	1,183	672	235	302	146	51
New Jersey	10,401	5,983	1,841	2,162	988	340
New Mexico	2,974	984	510	525	567	169
New York	72,545	43,682	9,118	23,572	7,990	3,725
North Carolina	10,169	4,625	2,339	1,263	1,361	395
North Dakota	1,680	731	641	245	229	126
Ohio	14,177	4,795	2,869	3,466	3,300	735
Oklahoma	12,896	3,564	2,006	3,566	3,454	1,112
Oregon	4,488	1,735	1,286	910	840	213
Pennsylvania	19,650	9,659	3,651	4,706	2,794	1,577
Puerto Rico	3,371	1,579	704	303	145	66
Rhode Island	2,405	1,220	759	442	236	148
South Carolina	5,274	2,780	1,239	910	517	160
South Dakota	1,467	459	333	359	371	76
Tennessee	8,108	3,958	1,905	1,163	1,187	296
Texas	42,067	15,392	6,830	9,530	7,979	2,189
Utah	2,715	1,192	731	432	516	108
Vermont	823	328	215	102	103	27
Virginia	8,207	3,509	1,736	1,235	733	263
Virgin Islands	82	48	32	9	2	0
Washington	6,324	1,864	1,383	1,226	1,455	356
West Virginia	2,758	1,405	654	545	381	102
Wisconsin	4,256	1,829	1,459	671	524	242
Wyoming	912	328	200	203	246	59

1/ Includes veterans of all wars.

Table 3.--Nonagricultural Placements, by Industry Division, March 1964

STATE	INDUSTRY DIVISION						
	TOTAL	CONSTRUCTION	MANUFACTURING	WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	SERVICE		ALL OTHER 1/
					TOTAL	DOMESTIC	
TOTAL	478,054	31,363	102,959	109,055	195,063	109,176	39,614
ALABAMA	9,690	1,167	1,834	1,856	4,224	2,406	609
ALASKA	574	1	139	85	205	104	144
ARIZONA	7,586	465	869	2,094	3,433	1,781	725
ARKANSAS	9,355	1,140	2,283	2,143	3,113	1,770	676
CALIFORNIA	54,517	1,588	9,116	12,160	27,502	13,412	4,151
COLORADO	5,450	404	571	1,801	1,802	756	872
CONNECTICUT	6,223	293	1,979	1,503	2,059	1,108	389
DELAWARE	532	73	144	98	187	123	30
DIST OF COL	3,700	104	66	894	2,286	1,579	350
FLORIDA	20,989	2,171	2,540	5,400	9,125	4,852	1,753
GEORGIA	12,917	1,974	3,175	3,056	4,067	2,929	645
GUAM	65	41	16		2		6
HAWAII	921	371	88	159	192	51	111
IDAHO	2,115	83	462	609	766	521	195
ILLINOIS	13,908	418	4,252	3,492	4,779	1,493	967
INDIANA	7,507	327	2,451	1,978	2,208	1,175	543
IOWA	6,232	346	1,541	1,926	1,689	647	730
KANSAS	5,476	637	1,065	1,321	1,632	959	821
KENTUCKY	4,291	282	953	977	1,358	703	721
LOUISIANA	6,783	660	699	2,082	2,561	1,597	781
MAINE	1,376	74	532	376	317	107	77
MARYLAND	6,448	955	1,416	1,378	2,312	1,297	387
MASSACHUSETTS	12,365	493	4,243	2,281	4,748	1,321	603
MICHIGAN	12,368	375	3,750	3,142	4,292	1,573	809
MINNESOTA	5,104	102	1,730	1,278	1,259	594	735
MISSISSIPPI	7,993	712	1,965	1,524	3,318	2,315	474
MISSOURI	7,307	259	2,412	1,815	2,020	857	801
MONTANA	1,776	144	266	468	518	240	380
NEBRASKA	3,549	396	750	1,055	775	381	573
NEVADA	2,005	107	94	511	1,095	533	198
NEW HAMPSHIRE	1,183	38	461	128	453	39	103
NEW JERSEY	10,401	475	2,725	1,600	5,063	3,302	538
NEW MEXICO	2,974	299	166	872	1,252	711	385
NEW YORK	72,545	925	14,529	9,980	44,049	28,767	3,062
NORTH CAROLINA	10,169	1,546	3,615	1,632	2,580	1,709	796
NORTH DAKOTA	1,680	64	102	548	616	309	350
OHIO	14,177	880	3,445	4,467	4,447	2,265	938
OKLAHOMA	12,896	1,359	1,157	3,755	5,046	2,554	1,579
OREGON	4,488	235	992	1,162	1,529	702	570
PENNSYLVANIA	19,650	839	6,194	5,404	6,172	3,244	1,041
PUERTO RICO	3,371	644	1,421	253	426	193	627
RHODE ISLAND	2,405	78	1,150	479	570	314	128
SOUTH CAROLINA	5,274	564	1,421	917	2,124	1,663	248
SOUTH DAKOTA	1,467	112	162	453	480	288	260
TENNESSEE	8,108	584	2,474	1,891	2,650	1,643	509
TEXAS	42,067	4,697	6,162	11,864	15,380	9,530	3,964
UTAH	2,715	125	473	817	817	252	483
VERMONT	823	38	217	187	296	133	85
VIRGINIA	8,207	1,202	1,469	1,871	3,010	1,877	655
VIRGIN ISLANDS	82	10	16	17	28	21	11
WASHINGTON	6,324	205	964	1,411	1,544	796	2,200
WEST VIRGINIA	2,758	114	407	767	1,220	862	250
WISCONSIN	4,256	82	1,779	804	1,176	638	415
WYOMING	912	86	57	314	294	180	161

1/ Includes forestry and fishing; mining; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; finance, insurance, and real estate; government; establishments not elsewhere classified.

Table 4.--Status of MDTA Institutional Training Program Through April 1964

State	Approved Projects		Approved Trainees		Projects Started		Enrolled Trainees	
	April	Cumulative	April	Cumulative	April	Cumulative	April	Cumulative
TOTAL	124	2,762	5,801	126,426	38	2,535	4,441	80,541
Alabama	3	30	340	1,694	-	27	36	1,016
Alaska	1	10	20	397	1	9	58	268
Arizona	-	15	-	720	-	15	5	637
Arkansas	4	42	160	1,117	2	36	63	889
California	4	210	196	10,416	2	202	404	8,053
Colorado	8	29	285	742	-	21	5	467
Connecticut	1	89	209	6,881	-	81	102	3,067
Delaware	-	5	-	111	-	5	9	116
Dist. of Columbia	1	18	240	1,450	-	16	27	891
Florida	5	47	240	2,550	2	38	79	1,366
Georgia	4	29	126	861	1	24	14	524
Hawaii	-	11	-	410	-	11	14	319
Idaho	-	10	-	202	-	10	2	223
Illinois	2	120	125	8,344	1	118	610	7,867
Indiana	3	64	115	2,923	2	46	220	1,989
Iowa	3	40	145	1,199	1	35	37	823
Kansas	4	40	172	1,374	-	35	33	902
Kentucky	1	78	40	5,424	4	75	466	3,400
Louisiana	-	-	-	- -	-	-	-	-
Maine	5	59	333	1,931	1	51	42	1,296
Maryland	5	20	110	783	1	16	61	573
Massachusetts	2	124	88	3,196	-	118	146	2,915
Michigan	2	114	246	4,974	1	111	130	4,113
Minnesota	2	47	61	1,147	-	45	26	999
Mississippi	-	4	-	110	-	4	0	75
Missouri	4	108	125	4,463	-	103	222	3,669
Montana	1	30	15	632	2	28	35	447
Nebraska	1	29	40	1,237	-	27	24	584
Nevada	3	30	102	972	-	25	0	647
New Hampshire	3	25	241	1,325	-	21	38	801
New Jersey	10	102	383	3,931	1	91	52	2,417
New Mexico	6	23	134	824	-	18	30	643
New York	1	141	15	9,761	2	133	329	7,139
North Carolina	1	63	20	1,755	-	53	10	1,271
North Dakota	4	39	80	508	-	32	2	349
Ohio	1	133	640	5,285	-	127	174	3,532
Oklahoma	-	45	-	1,824	3	45	54	1,545
Oregon	4	26	130	958	1	23	57	796
Pennsylvania	5	168	94	7,579	3	164	244	6,396
Puerto Rico	-	124	-	2,426		124	16	2,390
Rhode Island	-	26	-	634	-	25	0	505
South Carolina	-	19	-	5,496	-	13	234	877
South Dakota	-	8	-	220	-	5	3	147
Tennessee	2	58	80	2,120	1	56	61	1,696
Texas	6	86	140	3,298	-	78	45	2,865
Utah	2	24	40	741	-	22	1	709
Vermont	1	21	12	584	2	16	23	355
Virginia	1	37	20	2,148	1	35	68	1,304
Virgin Islands	-	14	-	295	-	4	0	67
Washington	2	38	55	3,278	1	36	52	2,377
West Virginia	-	33	-	3,279	1	33	31	697
Wisconsin	6	49	184	1,650	1	42	32	1,351
Wyoming	-	8	-	247	-	7	0	177

Source: State Employment Security agencies.

Table 5.--Status of Trainees in MDTA Institutional Projects Completed Through February 1964 1/

State	Number Trainees Completing Courses	Number Trainees Obtaining Employment	Percent Obtaining Employment of Those Completing Training 3/	Number Employed in Training Related Jobs 3/	No. Trainees Placed in Jobs by Employment Service	Percent Trainees Placed by Employment Service of Those Obtaining Employment	Percent Terminated of Enrolled
TOTAL	33,560	23,933	71.3	21,257	17,035	71.2	24.8
Alabama	447	248	55.5	223	186	75.0	21.0
Alaska	88	69	78.4	64	43	62.3	13.7
Arizona	206	187	90.8	180	140	74.9	28.5
Arkansas	139	106	76.3	103	51	48.1	42.8
California	3,691	2,510	68.0	2,239	1,620	64.5	22.9
Colorado	95	74	77.9	60	32	43.2	22.8
Connecticut	1,826	1,501	82.2	1,272	1,207	80.4	23.9
Delaware	41	34	82.9	28	28	82.4	29.3
Dist. of Columbia	339	152	44.8	104	64	42.1	28.5
Florida	458	286	62.4	267	182	63.6	22.0
Georgia	136	114	83.8	100	69	60.5	28.0
Hawaii	197	184	93.4	178	173	94.0	12.1
Idaho	27	21	77.8	20	18	85.7	27.0
Illinois	2,616	1,727	66.0	1,646	1,446	83.7	31.2
Indiana	616	399	64.8	318	246	61.7	20.3
Iowa	323	259	80.2	241	198	76.4	11.0
Kansas	261	194	74.3	177	155	79.9	25.2
Kentucky	436	355	81.4	327	245	69.0	28.5
Louisiana	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maine	798	654	82.0	632	631	96.5	16.9
Maryland	223	162	72.6	151	98	60.5	44.8
Massachusetts	769	581	75.6	521	389	67.0	29.9
Michigan	1,861	1,460	78.5	1,285	1,034	70.8	15.3
Minnesota	382	268	70.2	277	202	75.4	32.1
Mississippi	52	44	84.6	39	31	70.5	30.7
Missouri	1,267	919	72.5	825	717	78.0	23.8
Montana	166	156	94.0	142	107	68.6	8.8
Nebraska	81	66	81.5	65	52	78.8	37.2
Nevada	249	167	67.1	158	144	86.2	26.5
New Hampshire	496	399	80.4	371	363	91.0	17.2
New Jersey	1,224	790	64.5	722	511	64.7	24.1
New Mexico	287	262	91.3	247	182	69.5	17.8
New York	2,671	1,823	68.3	1,620	1,244	68.2	26.4
North Carolina	370	344	93.0	322	308	89.5	14.2
North Dakota	67	52	77.6	46	44	84.6	19.3
Ohio	1,474	1,055	71.6	843	703	66.6	20.2
Oklahoma	659	533	80.9	403	284	53.3	27.2
Oregon	234	195	83.3	188	161	82.6	13.7
Pennsylvania 3/	2,138	1,422	66.5	1,154	790	55.6	35.2
Puerto Rico	1,137	614	54.0	532	401	65.3	21.6
Rhode Island	181	138	76.2	118	84	60.9	41.2
South Carolina	206	176	85.4	152	117	66.5	31.8
South Dakota	25	22	88.0	22	15	68.2	45.7
Tennessee	400	301	75.2	258	182	60.5	35.3
Texas	1,120	889	79.4	811	623	70.1	18.5
Utah	209	120	57.4	115	28	23.3	22.0
Vermont	99	65	65.7	59	52	80.0	30.8
Virginia	619	358	57.8	326	223	62.3	20.1
Virgin Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Washington	1,423	945	66.4	819	765	80.9	17.8
West Virginia	190	122	64.2	114	111	91.0	28.6
Wisconsin	485	371	76.5	338	304	81.9	29.9
Wyoming	56	40	71.4	35	32	80.0	17.6

1/ Based on employment reports received through May 1, 1964.
2/ Data includes 1,288 persons leaving training to take training-related jobs prior to conclusion of courses
3/ Includes estimates for terminations to obtain training-related jobs.

Table 6.--Status of ARA Trainees First Quarter 1964
Cumulative November 1961 Through March 1964

STATE	First Quarter 1964					Cumulative November 1961 - March 31, 1964								
	Approved		En-rolled	Com-pleted	Em-ployed	Approved		En-rolled	Termi-nated	Com-pleted	Employed		Employed as Percent of Completed	No. Trainees Placed in Jobs by Employment Service
	Pro-jects	Train-ees				Pro-jects	Train-ees				Total	Training Related		
TOTAL	71	2,764	2,640	1,558	1,173	629	29,207	23,573	3,573	17,320	12,912	11,615	74.5	8,517
Alabama	2	230	30	22	42	7	898	612	109	457	229	203	50.1	189
Alaska	1	25	20	0	0	8	230	155	30	105	84	82	80.0	50
Arizona	0	0	27	51	13	4	215	205	66	115	33	32	28.7	20
Arkansas	0	0	336	20	20	26	1,023	1,057	177	462	353	334	76.4	77
California	0	0	0	0	0	1	24	24	12	12	12	10	100.0	3
Colorado	0	0	0	0	0	5	101	103	18	85	65	36	76.5	14
Connecticut	0	0	0	0	11	11	1,037	707	166	528	416	386	78.8	120
Delaware	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
District of Columbia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Florida	0	0		0	0	2	107	103	4	99	86	83	86.9	79
Georgia	0	0	92	183	183	3	318	296	27	269	247	236	91.8	216
Hawaii	0	0	13	0	0	4	92	56	0	43	36	34	83.7	24
Idaho	1	15	0	0	0	4	47	32	3	29	22	22	75.9	10
Illinois	5	320	40	35	45	25	1,516	740	114	586	412	377	70.3	341
Indiana	0	0	0	0	0	5	522	478	63	415	302	290	72.8	260
Iowa	0	0	0	0	0	1	20	20	0	20	20	18	100.0	18
Kansas	0	0	0	0	0	4	58	58	2	56	44	43	78.6	26
Kentucky	5	109	100	9	74	45	1,431	1,247	116	990	764	683	77.2	463
Louisiana	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maine	1	125	0	0	0	16	494	334	46	277	259	253	93.5	259
Maryland	1	75	20	9	17	9	511	433	88	322	247	228	76.7	105
Massachusetts	4	70	14	0	0	19	460	400	67	309	247	226	79.9	82
Michigan	10	280	398	194	108	43	2,594	2,023	141	1,457	1,101	936	75.6	830
Minnesota	1	25	25	3	0	10	1,197	1,117	115	980	679	606	69.3	525
Mississippi	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Missouri	1	200	.0	0	0	6	425	226	42	184	120	97	65.2	69
Montana	2	30	52	23	22	17	667	542	64	421	404	387	96.0	346
Nebraska	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nevada	0	0	40	0	0	4	250	122	7	75	64	62	85.3	68
New Hampshire	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
New Jersey	4	164	227	228	60	25	1,470	1,150	210	825	531	482	64.4	519
New Mexico	2	40	26	22	31	14	782	602	81	495	402	386	81.2	224
New York	1	48	16	0	0	3	140	113	12	85	60	53	70.6	26
North Carolina	6	101	182	38	27	38	917	696	135	388	321	297	82.7	261
North Dakota	3	90	10	19	0	13	312	193	22	139	98	90	70.5	64
Ohio	2	37	54	0	0	19	539	515	67	369	265	235	71.8	177
Oklahoma	2	195	249	156	150	45	2,016	1,759	366	1,228	1,016	920	82.7	499
Oregon	1	35	0	0	0	2	85	49	0	49	48	23	98.0	26
Pennsylvania	4	240	192	97	64	39	2,219	1,871	414	1,353	866	746	64.0	708
Puerto Rico	0	0	0	24	9	5	340	329	86	232	120	116	51.7	106
Rhode Island	0	0	20	10	5	6	791	756	144	593	438	335	73.9	162
South Carolina	0	0	0	0	0	3	57	57	12	45	38	24	84.4	13
South Dakota	1	36	70	26	26	8	217	170	13	87	87	87	100.0	0
Tennessee	1	14	39	1	1	21	655	639	90	268	174	131	64.9	85
Texas	0	0	50	0	0	21	375	386	65	272	199	174	73.2	89
Utah	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vermont	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virginia	0	0	0	0	0	1	96	98	5	93	64	60	68.8	64
Virginia Islands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Washington	1	40	50	30	16	6	250	203	23	130	111	105	85.4	123
West Virginia	4	87	197	332	225	44	2,903	2,191	281	1,829	1,409	1,302	77.0	800
Wisconsin	5	133	51	26	24	36	786	686	70	524	399	365	76.1	357
Wyoming	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
American Samoa	0	0	0	0	0	1	20	20	0	20	20	20	100.0	20

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1964 O—731-046

Local office service under cooperative school programs for high school graduates and dropouts, school year 1962–1963

(Part I)

Region and State	High schools served	Graduating students in high schools served		Counseling interviews with registered graduating students in high schools served			Registered graduating students given tests		Nonagricultural placements of registered students			Registrants under program for "dropouts"	
		Total	Number registered with ES	Total	Initial	Interviews using USES interest check list	GATB	Proficiency tests	Total	Individuals placed		Total	Placed in nonagricultural jobs
										Number	In permanent jobs (6 months or more)		
Total	10,866	1,372,345	586,529	570,244	361,440	170,315	344,926	110,240	120,732	105,051	81,359	49,891	21,222
Region I:													
Connecticut	153	26,588	13,923	5,771	3,558	1,028	3,501	1,697	2,842	2,455	2,127	2,964	1,000
Maine	172	10,305	5,828	4,566	4,503	1,215	4,352	386	1,060	1,019	900	486	55
Massachusetts	259	33,474	12,412	13,631	9,704	7,550	9,044	2,071	1,237	1,177	1,010	1,833	615
New Hampshire	104	6,620	2,384	3,409	1,956	1,810	2,067	141	369	357	283	282	103
Rhode Island	52	8,090	3,079	3,185	1,917	879	1,464	1,541	865	831	779	679	284
Vermont	45	2,844	1,052	1,041	756	117	793	138	222	210	163	NP	NP
Region II:													
New Jersey	255	52,436	11,220	10,371	8,913	4,332	9,290	709	1,858	1,661	1,374	1,609	625
New York	694	123,152	47,761	39,975	22,295	9,493	14,345	13,261	13,545	12,239	11,299	9,184	7,684
Puerto Rico	161	19,322	11,535	11,431	6,149	320	4,202	1,952	1,238	943	860	47	36
Virgin Islands	6	251	169	261	168	85	173	96	55	50	35	54	31
Region III:													
Delaware	34	4,896	2,275	2,672	2,223	0	2,275	21	207	207	169	265	81
District of Columbia	15	3,458	3,148	2,558	1,925	1,925	1,954	0	2,820	1,748	705	1,437	640
Maryland	128	20,743	5,810	7,218	5,249	NP	5,409	654	1,025	963	839	0	0
North Carolina	378	31,428	16,663	19,278	13,226	9,299	14,320	2,156	4,911	4,022	3,355	NP	NP
Pennsylvania	734	104,312	51,487	57,553	30,077	18,430	25,346	5,806	8,226	7,815	5,627	4,907	1,460
Virginia	305	32,938	13,128	14,882	11,789	9,853	10,629	1,574	2,149	2,059	1,582	1,497	309
West Virginia	178	13,732	9,009	10,412	5,415	5,272	5,833	613	1,174	1,057	943	241	26
Region IV:													
Alabama	209	16,538	8,343	7,818	6,170	415	6,590	2,373	1,358	1,214	1,041	539	154
Florida	206	40,653	11,208	10,370	6,775	6,092	6,654	3,900	3,198	2,812	2,375	914	439
Georgia	180	16,670	6,332	6,332	4,921	4,860	6,033	917	1,393	1,244	988	139	90
Mississippi	403	21,593	10,771	18,202	8,823	5,827	7,724	901	1,863	1,703	1,558	294	132
South Carolina	171	15,207	6,212	5,226	4,161	3,184	4,215	1,316	1,374	1,263	1,160	401	123
Tennessee	220	19,343	10,787	11,356	8,050	5,831	9,615	1,714	2,284	2,168	1,941	328	127
Region V:													
Kentucky	278	22,995	12,360	12,596	10,677	10,184	10,242	1,205	2,182	2,126	1,873	949	332
Michigan	137	22,872	8,304	2,036	1,491	1,226	1,286	2,685	1,933	1,586	1,311	689	84
Ohio	672	79,290	34,556	27,650	22,481	16,356	23,949	11,672	3,678	3,615	3,184	1,197	145
Region VI:													
Illinois	357	58,019	24,677	27,311	16,257	1,049	14,639	2,547	4,888	4,220	3,343	3,243	820
Indiana	304	27,734	16,487	12,954	11,174	2,284	12,255	2,826	2,711	2,301	1,972	663	218
Minnesota	340	44,512	13,693	9,926	5,626	1,226	5,789	4,216	2,302	2,058	1,656	NP	NP
Wisconsin	367	43,446	25,657	29,073	16,189	10,345	15,685	7,762	5,081	4,952	4,293	395	109
Region VII:													
Iowa	135	13,535	5,810	4,543	3,363	1,161	3,130	1,438	829	799	600	855	279
Kansas	139	12,889	5,496	5,774	3,408	7	3,306	585	770	655	491	342	89
Missouri	268	28,287	9,988	8,734	5,139	1,946	4,996	2,479	1,029	971	869	1,473	202
Nebraska	205	10,515	5,328	6,509	5,026	455	5,341	871	1,685	1,354	862	177	153
North Dakota	114	3,593	2,640	2,870	1,944	72	2,894	577	365	140	96	180	174
South Dakota	112	5,522	2,994	3,883	2,330	74	2,600	389	541	357	252	196	100
Region VIII:													
Arkansas	187	11,833	6,354	7,585	4,363	3,545	4,150	1,473	1,720	1,356	1,053	461	240
Louisiana	143	16,218	5,571	4,892	2,731	230	2,436	1,317	825	737	647	591	131
Oklahoma	155	15,351	5,848	5,446	4,240	3,523	3,976	1,419	1,099	817	504	265	149
Texas	265	43,645	14,654	8,694	5,406	1,343	4,559	5,384	3,517	2,984	2,094	1,798	637
Region IX:													
Colorado	75	9,738	5,521	4,600	2,116	2,060	3,201	469	1,213	954	676	688	291
Montana	75	6,116	2,812	3,226	2,273	845	2,207	441	1,605	1,009	680	247	121
New Mexico	73	9,289	4,957	5,574	3,392	1,775	3,171	575	796	729	515	305	89
Utah	75	13,419	2,329	465	194	10	237	952	584	457	282	NP	NP
Wyoming	45	3,347	1,238	1,254	861	571	861	176	263	241	111	69	59
Region X:													
Arizona	58	9,561	6,344	5,970	3,540	324	3,282	981	2,145	2,006	1,640	504	219
California	582	158,133	63,011	58,055	34,658	1,194	31,960	8,062	18,268	14,842	8,350	5,920	2,370
Guam [1]													
Hawaii	28	7,741	2,667	1,535	1,252	65	1,310	113	383	370	138	11	2
Nevada	34	3,014	1,626	1,447	1,150	488	1,354	222	523	436	200	103	79
Region XI:													
Alaska	32	2,004	1,650	940	911	96	1,065	282	158	127	65	NP	NP
Idaho	122	9,110	3,744	3,603	2,990	2,132	2,915	512	910	768	445	187	38
Oregon	207	21,986	10,394	14,813	7,816	6,905	7,331	1,718	2,195	1,768	1,312	263	78
Washington	220	34,038	15,283	20,768	9,719	1,007	8,971	2,955	1,261	1,099	732	NP	NP

NP—No provision.

[1] Information not available.

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